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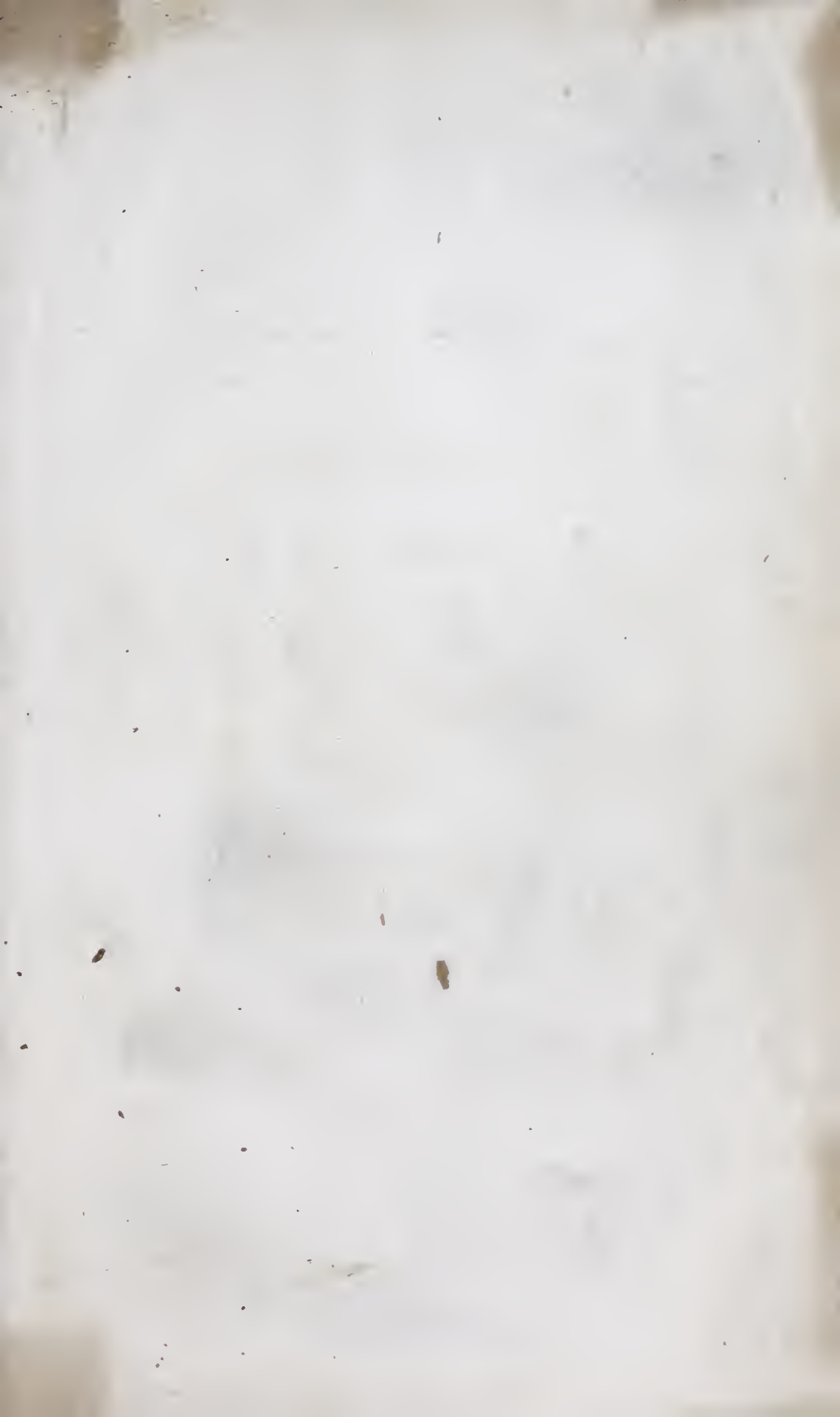
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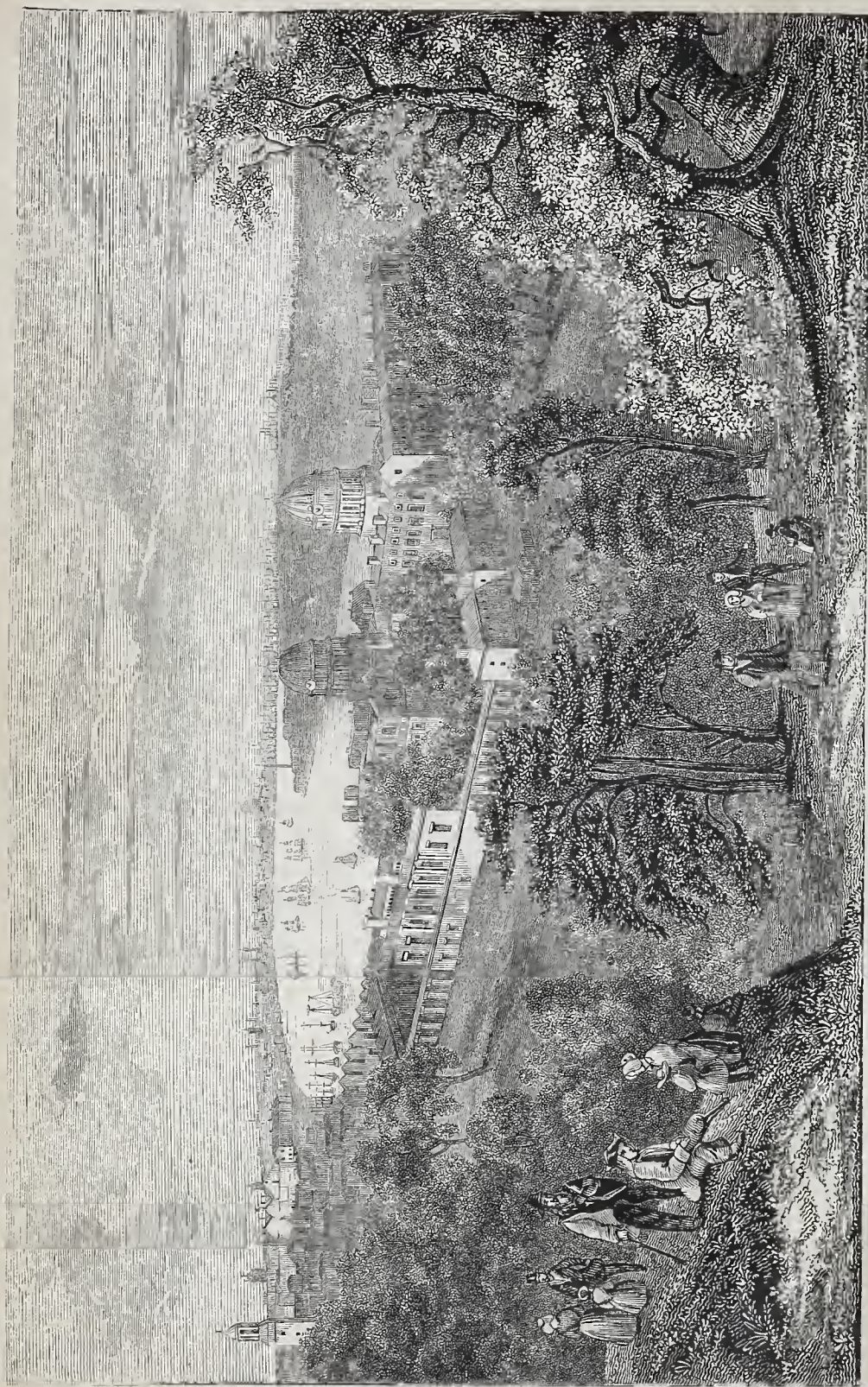
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VOLUME



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VIEW OF LONDON FROM GREENWICH PARK.

A

NEW AND POPULAR
PICTORIAL DESCRIPTION
OF
ENGLAND, SCOTLAND, IRELAND, WALES,
AND
THE BRITISH ISLANDS.

EMBELLISHED WITH

SEVERAL HUNDRED HANDSOME ENGRAVINGS,

ILLUSTRATING THE NATURAL SCENERY, CURIOSITIES, ANTIQUITIES, DRUIDICAL AND
ROMAN REMAINS, MANSIONS, CATHEDRALS, ABBEYS, CHURCHES, COLLEGES,
CASTLES, AND OTHER GREAT WORKS OF ARCHITECTURE, ETC., ETC.,
WHICH ABOUND IN THOSE CELEBRATED COUNTRIES.

CAREFULLY COMPILED FROM THE BEST AND LATEST SOURCES,

BY ROBERT SEARS.

EIGHTH THOUSAND.

NEW YORK:
PUBLISHED BY ROBERT SEARS. 128 NASSAU STREET,
J. S. REDFIELD, CLINTON HALL.
BOSTON: SAXTON & KELT, WASHINGTON ST.
SOLD ALSO BY AUTHORIZED AGENTS THROUGHOUT THE UNITED STATES AND BRITISH PROVINCES.

MDCCCXLVIII.

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P R E F A C E .

Books describing cities and countries have ever held a high rank among works of general utility and interest. The reasons are obvious: man naturally feels a sympathy with his own species, and reads of his fellow-beings, their habits, manners, and actions, with a reference to his own people and to himself. The places inhabited by other men have attractions for us far above any desert waste; and the cities they have built, and the houses they inhabit, present an irresistible appeal to our national curiosity. Hence it ever has been, and ever must be the fact, that books which describe such objects are popular in proportion to the truth and judgment with which they are written, and the taste and intelligence of the readers.

Even a traveller in Africa, or any other uncivilized region of the earth, finds much to say which we are willing and happy to hear; but how much more material for record and perusal is afforded by a country inhabited by men in a refined state of society. If to this be added the memorials of former ages, and a long course of striking events, important in their present consequences, the attractions and value of the work are greatly enhanced. And where would it be possible to find a part of the world more abounding in such points of interest than that which forms the subject-matter of this volume? In all these respects, GREAT BRITAIN stands pre-eminent. the most active, powerful, and refined state in Europe; exercising the most mechanical skill, carrying on the most extensive commerce; controlling the widest empire; practising, advocating, proclaiming, and propagating, many of the soundest principles, offers to our view a country, small in extent, and therefore the more easily inspected and studied, abounding no less in the interesting and instructive memorials of many past ages, than in the most admirable productions of modern science and art. The antiquities, curiosities, and scenery, of the parent land, are surely of the deepest interest to the millions who speak the language of "Old England," scattered through every quarter of the habitable globe. The antiquities of England are the antiquities of North America, and of Australia—of mighty continents and fertile islands, where the descendants of the Anglo-Saxon have founded "new nations." They are of especial interest to the YOUNG who are seeking for information on these subjects. So abundant, indeed, are these objects, that many large works have been written on each separate class of them: but as they are far too voluminous and minute for an American reader, it has been our design to select and arrange the most prominent in different departments; and thus to present, in a single volume, all that is of primary interest and importance.

It will be observed, that a large space has been devoted to LONDON,* BUSY, CLAMOROUS, CROWDED, IMPERIAL LONDON; and for doing this, scarcely a word of explanation is needed. It is the abode of intelligence and industry; the centre of trade and commerce; the resort of the learned and the inquiring. Here the poet has sung his sweetest strains, the historian produced the most authentic records, the philosopher made his most elaborate research, and communicated its most satisfactory results. Here has dwelt a POPE, a HUME, a BACON, a LOCKE, a DAVY, a BOYLE, and a PRIESTLEY. Here a MILTON produced the sublimest of all human compositions; and here a SHAKSPEARE portrayed the passions in all their various moods, and a GARRICK gave them life and a startling reality. Here, too, NEWTON found opportunity to explore and lay open the deepest mysteries of Nature, while the glowing canvass of a LAWRENCE gives a present existence to the events of long-past ages. It contains traces of almost every code in history from the age of the Romans to the present day—edifices erected by the most distinguished artists, in different styles; and which have been the residences of whole lines of monarchs, or of more eminent statesmen, scholars, and philanthropists; courts of law, and houses of legislation, which have not only had their influence on past generations and distant countries, BUT HAVE SERVED AS MODELS FOR THOSE UNDER WHICH WE OURSELVES LIVE. In London, also we find an impressive epitome of English history and the greatness and frailty of man, in the solemn aisles of Westminster abbey. The very streets of the metropolis, as well as some of its most obscure and humble districts, are celebrated as the abodes or resorts of men, distinguished for learning, taste, or moral worth; for eloquence at the bar or the forum; for courage or conduct in the field. In London have occurred a large share of those actions by which the destiny of the nation has been influenced or decided; and whose effects we feel to the present day.

An acquaintance with these scenes and objects is not to be regarded as a means of mere literary recreation. England has not struggled through the trials of successive ages for naught. She does not, like Spain or Italy, or even France, boast of slow improvements in a few matters of secondary importance, while the chief objects of national progress are disregarded. England early accomplished her emancipation from Rome, and has ever maintained it; and not only religion, but literature, art, and the whole civil, and social condition of the people, have received benefits innumerable and inestimable.

In the arts and sciences, London has many memorials and specimens to exhibit. Some of the public edifices are works of the best architects of the kingdom; and the

* We are apt to imagine here in the United States, that the growth of our towns and cities greatly surpasses in rapidity and extent those of any part of the old world. Some facts about London would seem to contradict this notion. It is stated, for instance, in a recent report to the government, that in a little more than twelve years, twelve hundred new streets have been added to London, which is at the rate of one hundred streets a year. These twelve hundred new streets contain forty-eight thousand houses, most of them built on a large and commodious scale, and in a style of superior comfort. With all this wonderful increase, it is said that the demand for houses instead of diminishing, continues to increase, and that while in many towns of the interior the number of unoccupied houses is augmenting, scarcely is a new street finished, before almost every house in it is fully occupied. One great reason assigned for the rapid growth of London, is the extraordinary facility and despatch with which people are now transported over railroads terminating there. Owing to this cause, it is estimated that the daily influx of individuals is five times greater than it was fifteen years ago. London is now about forty miles in circumference, and numbers about two millions of inhabitants.

collection of ancient arts in the British Museum, and of modern painters and sculptors in the Royal Academy and elsewhere, have much to gratify and improve the taste. The parks of London display, in an eminent degree, the noble features of nature; and to an American this is peculiarly agreeable, as it corresponds with the impressive wildness of our own native forests, as strangely as it contrasts with the feeble and artificial tastes, so prevalent on the Continent. To us, also, the aged oaks of London are connected with interesting associations, not less so than

“ Thy forests, Windsor, and thy green retreats,
At once the monarch's and the muses' seats.”

Wherever we turn our eyes we perceive some trace of the land of our forefathers: and we can not speak a word without borrowing their tongue. Even in our cradles we are lulled by the sweet music which was wafted across the ocean with the ships of the Pilgrims, coupled with the lofty songs of their poets who have best transferred to modern speech exalted strains of inspiration. In childhood we were surrounded by the guardian hands of mothers, trained on the pure and refined model of Britain; and prepared to perform our parts in life, under the practical tutelage and daily example of men who have derived their ideas of rights and duties from the most free and intelligent people of the Old World. Though under advantages, which America alone can offer, we have made advances of our own, it becomes us clearly to understand the sources of our blessings, as well as those to which we are indebted for their increase. An obligation results from the principle of gratitude. In the infancy of many of our benevolent institutions we received liberal assistance from our friends across the ocean. In reference to this subject, a late American writer* observes:—

We are living on the capital furnished by others, reaping fields not planted by our hands. We are enjoying benefits earned and secured by preceding generations, not by those simply who have lived on this soil, but of multitudes on the other side of the sea. Much of our present prosperity is owing to the timely aid which distant benefactors extended. These goodly churches and institutions which have been the glory of the Atlantic states, were liberally fostered by Christians in Europe. It is doubtful whether some of the more important of them could have survived without this generous sympathy. The munificent founder of Harvard college could hardly be called a resident of this country. It was only a few months of languishing illness that he passed in New England. For a century and a half, Harvard college, so dear to the early churches, was often remembered by the large-hearted Christians of the parent-country. Some of the most eminent men of the seventeenth century vied with each other in their generous donations. Dr. John Lightfoot and Dr. Theophilus Gale gave the whole of their select and invaluable libraries to the college. An English nobleman erected a principal edifice at his sole expense. No father ever provided for his children with more solicitous care than Thomas Hollis, or rather the constellation of generous spirits of that name, who watched the progress of the pilgrims' college. They never saw it; they were three thousand miles away, yet the flame of a most disinterested charity was quenched only by death. George Whitefield, besides those gifts which gold can not purchase, procured valuable donations for the same institution. We might allude to the foreign aid bestowed on almost every other seminary founded in our country before the revolution, and on some since that event. Several bear the name of their British benefactors.

* Professor B. B. Edwards, of Andover, Mass.

But this beneficence was not confined to academical institutions. It flowed wherever a channel could be opened for it. The first printing-press in this country was a donation from Holland. The whole expense of that extraordinary undertaking, the printing of the first edition of John Eliot's Indian Bible, was borne in England. The apostle himself, the Mayhews and other missionaries even down to David Brainerd, were sustained, in a great degree, from the same source. The name of Robert Boyle is scarcely more renowned in science or in piety, than it is from its connexion with our early Indian missions. The great New England theologian, after his disruption from his pastoral charge, was cheered in his exile with the warmest and most generous sympathy from friends in Scotland, who had never seen him. It is not, perhaps, too much to say, that some of the greatest of his productions would never have been written, but for the M'Cullochs and Erskines of that country. Even the enmities excited by two wars have not been able wholly to dry up these streams of benevolence. Within a very recent period, an Englishman has been more ready to bequeath his property for the diffusion of knowledge among us, than the Congress of the United States are to employ the gift.

It is a remarkable fact in relation to these English benefactors, that they were, for the most part, members of different religious communions from those of the pilgrims. Bishop Sherlock made a valuable donation to Harvard college. Bishop Berkeley has immortalized his name in connexion with Yale. The earl of Dartmouth was an episcopal nobleman. Thomas Hollis was a baptist. When he transmitted one of his gifts, he remarked, that he did not know that his portrait would be safe from insult in the hall of the college which he was so liberally endowing.

Besides, these noble benefactors were not discouraged, though some of their funds might be misapplied or wasted. They patiently bore severe disappointments and heartily rejoiced in a small measure of success.

On these various accounts, a "PICTORIAL DESCRIPTION OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND," offers an attractive and profitable study to the intelligent of all countries; and especially to the American reader. The present is a period peculiarly favorable for the appearance of a work of this kind, and none could have been more agreeable to the Editor. Gloomy clouds which lately darkened the horizon, have been dispelled; and the sunshine of PEACE, which now smiles upon us, is doubly delightful. None of us could have entertained so just a conception of the consequences of a war between England and America, if we had not been forced to look upon it as impending; and therefore, all good men, we have reason to believe, are now more than ever impressed with the importance and duty of preserving PEACE. To reflect, but for a moment, upon the present state of the world, with the unprecedented means of attack and defence, in the hands of the two nations, on both land and sea to take into account the moral restraints which must be burst through by such a contest, and devastation of public and private interest to both parties, with the blow which would be given to every measure and hope of improvement in the world, makes an impression on the mind, more appalling than words can describe. To prevent the recurrence of such a danger, to lay as deep, as is possible for human hands, the foundations of permanent peace, immediate measures should be adopted to implant a mutual esteem and friendship between the two people. And nothing can be more reasonable, natural, and easy, than this: identity of origin, and of blood, of language, literature, religion, and principles of civil condition; connexions in

commerce, and unity in the prosecution of the great interests of mankind, by a noble career which we have long pursued, at the head of the nations; all point out this as the necessary and the only course for Great Britain and America. The very voice of Nature, as well as that of duty, and of God, seems to dictate it in words of thunder. Foster mutual respect and attachment, promote the noble rivalry which has been so happily begun in every physical, social, and moral improvement, and seek in every department some means of advancing the glorious cause!

But other means must prove of limited and doubtful success, unless a mutual acquaintance is provided for. If unknown to each other, how can we feel alike, or act together? We should become intimately acquainted with each other's condition, or we can form no definite idea of each other's character. Every book, therefore, which is calculated to diffuse among us historical and descriptive accounts of Great Britain, has a solid claim, we think, to the favorable regard of the patriotic and the good; and the more it is fitted to circulate and prove attractive to all classes of community, and especially to the young, the more is its intrinsic worth increased, and its extensive circulation made desirable.

With views like these, and in a spirit corresponding, has the present work been compiled and written. Deeply impressed with the utility of such a publication, unwearied pains have been taken, and great expense has been incurred, to render it such as to please and instruct all. Nothing has been omitted that was considered useful or agreeable. And evidences of these views and labors may everywhere be found. The most interesting and instructive subjects have been chosen for graphic illustration to assist the letter-press description. From the materials for such a volume a large folio might have been produced; but our object has been to condense and arrange in as small a compass as possible, all the really useful information the subject can afford; thus giving to the public a work, at a comparatively trifling expense, which details all that could be learned from far more expensive and bulky volumes. Not a sentiment, or an expression, has been admitted into this volume which will not bear the test of justice, propriety, and religion.

What sensible person can fail to prefer a work of this nature to the light and frivolous, and too often, alas! immoral and corrupting works of fiction, which now overflow from the press? There are more useful truths conveyed in one of these pages, than are contained in whole volumes of such writings. No taste but a perverted one could deliberately prefer the latter. The young and inexperienced can hardly be competent judges of their own reading: it is for their experienced elders, whose judgments are mature to direct and encourage them in the selection of subjects, and of books, which shall at once store their minds with valuable truths, and train their hearts to virtuous sentiments. The author feels a deep solicitude on this subject, and has endeavored to do his part for the promotion of the good of the rising generation. He here presents a work planned and composed with these considerations in view; and he hopes for the approbation and the support of many who approve of his views, and appreciate the end proposed.

R. S.

NEW YORK, *November 1, 1846.*

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A NEW AND POPULAR

PICTORIAL DESCRIPTION

OF

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

CHAPTER I.

DESCRIPTION OF ENGLAND AND WALES.

THE ancient kingdom of England, inclusive of Wales, forming geographically the principal division of the island of Great Britain, and politically the chief division of the United Kingdom—the country in which it is no boast to say the arts and institutions of social life have made as great an advance as they have done in any part of the continent—enjoys a situation which has unquestionably tended much to make the country what it is, both politically and socially. The island, of which it is the southern and larger portion, is protected from neighboring countries by a sea of sufficient breadth in most parts, and sufficiently uncertain in its condition, to throw almost insuperable difficulty in the way of an invading force. Placed in a medium latitude, it is further saved by the surrounding ocean from those extremes of heat, cold, and aridity, to which continental countries in both higher and lower parallels are often subject. While there are some districts, chiefly in the west and north, in which an uneven surface prevails, the country may be generally described as of a level and fertile character. Almost everywhere the eye rests upon the evidences of a long-enduring cultivation, in rich corn-fields and meadows, surrounded by well-grown hedges and rows of trees; the elm-surrounded Gothic parish church, the clean honey-suckled village, and the well-wooded park connected with the residence of the wealthy gentleman, being other notable features in the landscape, while the monthly-roses and other flowering shrubs, which climb over the cottages of those in humbler life, give an air of picturesque beauty to the rides throughout the whole of England. When we turn from merely rural scenes, we see not less striking evidences of an advanced civilization, in frequent brick towns and “towered cities,” generally overhung by clouds of smoke resulting from the coal everywhere used for domestic, if not also for manufacturing purposes. The peculiar features of some of these cities—Liverpool, Hull, and Bristol, vast depots of mercantile shipping; Manchester and Birmingham, sites of extensive manufactures; London, in itself a superb port, the seat of the government, and the residence of a class of unprecedented wealth and splendor—will be more particularly adverted to in the sequel.

England is situated between fifty degrees and fifty-five degrees forty-five minutes north latitude, and six degrees west and one degree fifty minutes east longitude, from Greenwich observatory. On the north, the only direction in which it is not surrounded by the sea, it is divided from Scotland by a series of rivers and a chain of

mountains. The greatest length, from Lizard Point in Cornwall to Berwick-upon-Tweed, is four hundred miles; and the greatest breadth, from St. David's Head in Pembrokeshire to the east of Essex, is three hundred miles. The area has been variously estimated, at fifty thousand three hundred and eighty-seven, and fifty-seven thousand nine hundred and sixty square miles; it has also been estimated at thirty-seven millions seven hundred and eighty-four thousand four hundred acres, of which only about a fourth part is said to be uncultivated.

England is divided into fifty-two counties, forty of which form England proper, while twelve belong to Wales. They may be thus enumerated:—

Southern counties.—Cornwall, Devon, Somerset, Dorset, Wilts, Hampshire, Berkshire, Sussex, Surrey, and Kent.

Midland southern counties.—Middlesex, Hertfordshire, Bedfordshire, Buckinghamshire, Oxfordshire, Gloucestershire, Cambridgeshire, Huntingdonshire, Northamptonshire, Warwickshire, and Worcestershire.

Midland northern counties.—Rutlandshire, Leicestershire, Staffordshire, Nottinghamshire, and Derbyshire.

Eastern counties.—Essex, Suffolk, Norfolk, and Lincolnshire.

Counties bordering on Wales.—Monmouth, Herefordshire, Shropshire, and Cheshire.

Northern counties.—Lancashire, Westmoreland, Cumberland, York, Durham, and Northumberland.

Counties in South Wales.—Glamorganshire, Brecknockshire, Caermarthenshire, Pembrokeshire, Cardiganshire, and Radnorshire.

Counties in North Wales.—Montgomeryshire, Merionethshire, Flintshire, Denbighshire, Caernarvonshire, and Anglesea.

The capital city is LONDON, which is also the metropolis of the United Kingdom.

The counties are subdivided into hundreds, wapentakes, tithings, &c., the whole containing twenty-five cities (inclusive of London) and one hundred and seventy-two boroughs. For ecclesiastical purposes, the country is divided into eleven thousand and seventy-seven parishes; the largest number in any county being four hundred and seventy-five, in Somersetshire, and the smallest thirty-two, in Westmoreland.

Owing to the limited extent and insular position of England, it contains no rivers comparable in magnitude to those of various continental countries. There are, nevertheless, some fine navigable streams, as the Thames, Medway, Humber, and Tyne, on the east side of the island, and the Mersey and Severn on the west side. The Trent, Ouse, Tees, Wear, Dee, Avon, and Derwent, are minor, but not inconsiderable rivers; besides which there are many of inferior importance. England contains no large lakes; but those of Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancashire, though of small size, are celebrated for the picturesque scenery by which they are surrounded.

Wales and the west side of England generally are mountainous. The chief ranges of mountains in this district have been classed under three heads: The *Devonian range*, stretching from Somersetshire through Devon into Cornwall, and terminating with the promontory of the Land's End; the *Cambrian range*, extending from the Bristol channel through Wales; and the *Northern or Cumbrian range*, stretching from Derbyshire through Cumberland, and passing into Scotland. None of the individual hills exceed 3,000 feet in height, except a few in Wales; the highest being Snowdon, in Caernarvonshire (3,571 feet). In the central and eastern parts of England (south of Yorkshire) there are a few ill-defined ranges of swelling eminences, but none which reach the altitude of 1,000 feet. Besides Snowdon, the principal eminences in England are David (3,427 feet) and Llewellyn (3,469), both in Wales; Skafell (3,166), Skiddaw (3,022), and Saddleback (2,787), in Cumberland; and Helvellyn (3,055), in Westmoreland. The loftiest points in the Devonian range are not more than from 1,000 to 1,200 feet in height.

GEOLOGICAL STRUCTURE.—SOIL.—CLIMATE.

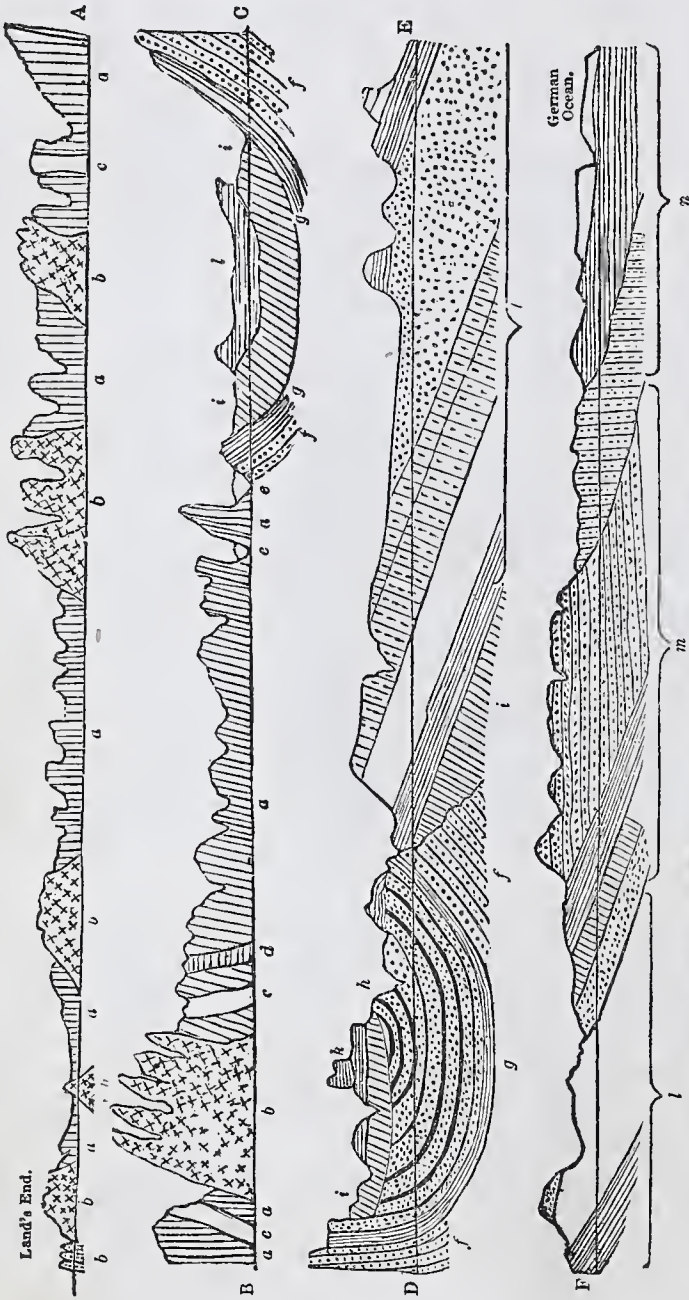
The surface of England includes specimens of the whole extent of the series of rocks, from the primary, which are found in the ranges of mountains on the west, to the lowest of the tertiary, which compose several districts in the southeast; strata intermediate to these divisions being found in succession, in proceeding from the

west and north toward the east and south. The cut on the next page exhibits a real section of a part of England, which will at once convey, far more intelligibly than any verbal description, a very correct notion of the manner in which the strata now present themselves, when we penetrate the crust of the earth, or view them in those precipices on the seashore, or in mountainous districts, where natural sections are exposed.

The reader will readily observe that the four parts belong to one continuous line, which has been broken, in order to adapt it to the form of our page, but the index letters show where they unite: A joins to B, C to D, and E to F. It is taken from the excellent work of Coneybeare and Phillips on the geology of England and Wales. It must not be supposed that any such section as that represented here is to be seen: it is constructed by putting together an extensive series of exact observations and measurements at detached points along the line, made, however, with such care, that if the land were actually cut down, it is very unlikely that any of the great features would be found to be erroneous. Suppose then that a line be drawn from the Land's End to Bendley hill, on the east coast, near Harwich, not absolutely straight, but passing over all the great features of the country that lie between the two points, at a short distance on either side of an imaginary central line, and that a vertical section were made to a depth in some place as far below the level of the sea as have been penetrated in the deepest mines, the precipice thus exposed would present such an arrangement of the strata as is exhibited in the diagram. It is necessary, however, to state that neither the horizontal distances, nor the vertical elevations, can be given in such a diagram in their true proportions. To do so, the paper must have been many yards long and several feet in height. The order of position, and the succession of the strata as they lie over each other, are, however, truly given; and nothing would be gained for the illustration of the facts the section is intended to represent, by increasing either the length or height. The horizontal line represents the level of the sea. We shall now travel along the line of section, beginning our journey at the Land's End, in Cornwall. We shall thus, as we move eastward, meet the different groups of strata in the order of succession we have already described, and shall find the tertiary rocks on the shores of the German ocean.

Fig. A is that portion of the section which extends from the Land's End to the western slope of Dartmoor forest, north of Tavistock, crossing Mount's bay to Marazion, Redruth, Truro, and north of Grampound and Lostwithiel. The principal rock is primary slate, *a*, which is in highly-inclined strata, and is traversed by numerous metallic veins and great veins or dykes of granite and other unstratified rocks, *b* and *c*, the granite also forming great mountain masses that rise in some instances to the height of 1,368 feet above the sea, and in many places the great masses of granite are seen to send up shoots in numerous and frequently slender ramifications into the superincumbent slate.

Fig. B C contains that part of the section which lies between a point some miles north of Tavistock and the summit of the Mendip hills, in Somersetshire, passing near Tiverton, Milverton, Nether Stowey, and Cheddar. On the left, or western part, we find a continuation of the slaty rocks, *a*, traversed by veins of whinstone, *c*, and then we come upon a mass of granite, *b*, forming the lofty mountain group of Dartmoor forest. This is flanked on the east by the same slate that occurs on the west, and contains veins of whinstone, *c*, and subordinate beds of limestone, *d*. The slate continues without interruption for many miles, as far east as the Quantock hills, near Nether Stowey, where it is seen for the last time on this line of section, being succeeded by the secondary rocks. A great part of the slate belongs to that lowest group of the secondary rocks called transition, in which the rock *Grauwacke* prevails, from which the group has been named. On each side of the Quantock hills are deposits of rounded pebbles of grauwacke and limestone cemented together, *e a*. To the slate, *a*, succeeds the old red-sandstone group, *f*, followed by the mountain-limestone group, *g*. The strata of these rocks, soon after their deposition, must have been violently acted upon, for they are thrown up in such a manner as to form a trough or basin, as it is called in geological language; and in this trough there are found the red-marl group, *i*, and the lowest member of the oolite group, the lias limestone, *l*. Here we miss a member of the series which should have come between the mountain limestone and the red marl, viz., the coal group; this is a blank of very frequent occurrence, but we shall find it in its right place on the other side of the Mendip



Section of the Stratified and Unstratified Rocks, from the Land's End, in Cornwall, to the Coast of Suffolk.

hills. These are cut through on the right of the figure, and are seen to be composed of old red sandstone in the centre, covered on their sides by mountain limestone.

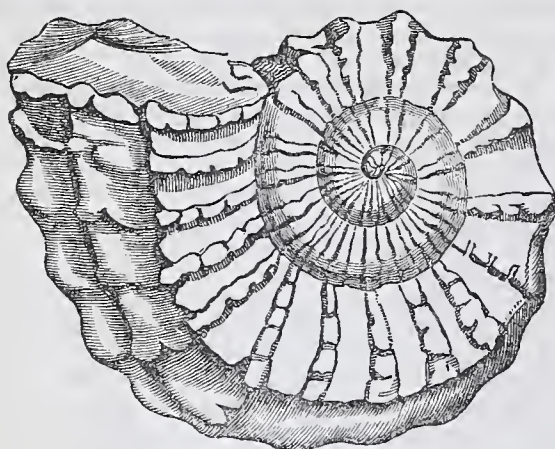
Fig. D E represents that part of the section which lies between the Mendip hills and Shotover hill, near Oxford. On the west we see the old red-sandstone group in the centre of the Mendip ridge, and that it is succeeded by a very instructive section of the great coal-field of Somersetshire. Here, as on the west side of the Mendip hills, the old red-sandstone and mountain-limestone groups have been acted upon by such a force from below, that they have been thrown up in opposite directions, and have formed a trough. As the coal measures, *h*, partake of the curvature, it is evident that the disturbance took place subsequently to their deposition; but it must have been prior to that of the next group, for the red-marl beds, *i*, are deposited in unconformable stratification upon the turned-up ends of the strata of the coal group. The red-marl group is covered by the portions of the lowest bed of the oolite group, *k*, indicating some powerful action at the surface, which has caused the removal of the connecting portions of the oolite beds, leaving insulated masses on the summits of high hills. This last occurrence of a mass of a horizontal stratum capping a lofty hill is very frequent, for the surface of the earth exhibits many proofs of its having been acted upon by water in motion, which has scooped out valleys and washed away vast tracts of solid earth. But such mountain caps have been also sometimes produced by the elevation of the mountain, a portion of rock being carried up to a great elevation, which had been a part of an extensively continuous stratum at a lower level. This deposit of the coal group is succeeded, as we proceed eastward, by the red-marl group, resting in unconformable stratification on the ends of the old red sandstone, two intermediate groups being thus wanting, and this is followed for many miles by successive members of the oolite group, *l*, inclined at a low angle.

Fig. F. The oolite group continues from Shotover hill to the neighborhood of Aylesbury, where it is succeeded by the sands, clays, and marls, which form the inferior members of the chalk group, *m*. Near Tring, the chalk with flints emerges, forming the lofty hill of Ivinghoe, which is 904 feet above the level of the sea, and it continues uninterruptedly to Dunmow, in Essex. Here the secondary rocks terminate, and the chalk is covered by very thick beds of clay, *n*, which form the lowest members of the tertiary strata, and, continuing on to the sea, appear in the cliffs of the coasts of Essex and Suffolk.

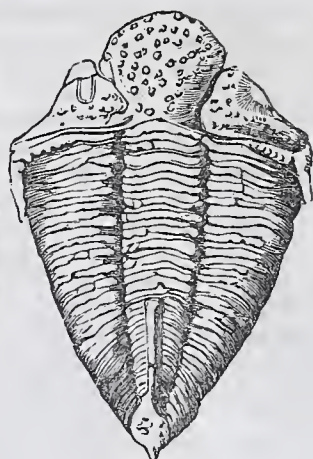
All the solid strata most abundant in *animal* remains are either limestones or contain a large proportion of lime in their composition. Many thick beds of clay also abound in them; but in that case limestone in some form or other is generally associated with the clay. From this it has been inferred, and not without a strong semblance of probability, that animals have mainly contributed to the formation of many limestone strata, in the same way as we see them now at work forming vast limestone rocks in the coral reefs of the Pacific ocean. A reef of this sort extends for three hundred and fifty miles along the east coast of New Holland, and between that country and New Guinea the coral formations have been found to extend, with very short intervals, throughout a distance of seven hundred miles. Of all the forms of organized bodies which are found in a fossil state, from the lowest stratum in which they occur to those of most modern date, shells and corals constitute by far the greatest proportion. All the strata must have been deposited in seas or lakes, and it is therefore natural that animals living in water should be most abundant; besides, as shells and corals are not liable to decay, they remain, while the soft, boneless animals which inhabit them perish entirely; and fishbones, being more perishable than shells, are comparatively rare.

Shells are by far the most numerous class of fossils: they are found in all formations, from the lowest stratum in which animal remains have been seen, to the most recent deposit now in progress. We shall mention a few of those found in Great Britain. One of these is called the Ammonite, formerly the *Cornu Ammonis*, that is, the horn of Ammon, from its resemblance to those horns which are affixed to the head of the statue of Jupiter Ammon.

Fig. A is a representation of the exterior of one of the numerous species of which this genus is composed. These shells are found of all sizes, from that of a few lines to nearly four feet in diameter, and above three hundred different species are said to have been observed. When the shell is slit, it exhibits the appearance represented by the annexed fig. B, for it is usually filled with stony matter, and often with transparent sparry crystals. It consists of a series of small chambers or cells, arranged



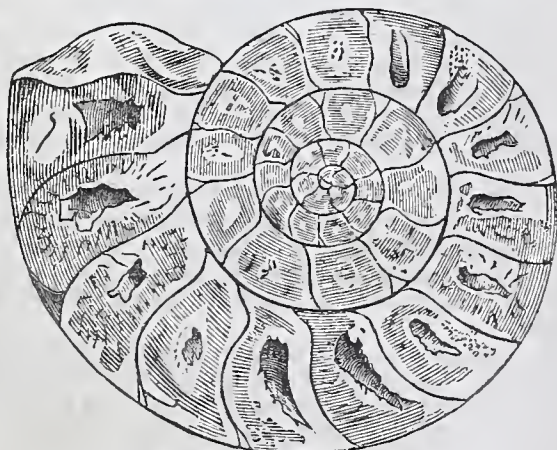
(Fig. A.)



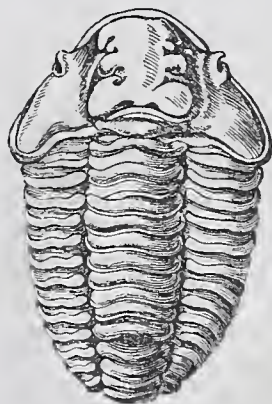
(Fig. D.)

in a form like a coiled snake, the different cells having apparently a communication with each other by a small tube or canal which runs near the outward margin of the coil. It is supposed that the animal first inhabited the innermost cell, that as it grew it formed larger and larger cells for itself, keeping up the communication with the former one. It is conceived, too, that the animal had the power of filling or emptying these cells, so as to regulate its motion in the water, filling them when it wanted to occupy the depths of the sea, and emptying them when it wished to make itself lighter in order to rise to the surface. The living shell to which it has the nearest resemblance is the nautilus. This remarkable fossil is found in all the stratified rocks, from the mountain limestone to the uppermost of the secondary strata. It thus continued to be reproduced through many succeeding ages, long after other genera, its first cotemporaries, had become extinct; but it also in its turn ceased to exist at the period when the tertiary strata began to be formed. The shell is so extremely thin, and so brittle, that it is rare to find perfect specimens, unless when preserved by being incased in hard stone.

There are some *genera* of shells in the lowest strata, containing animal remains, which are also found inhabiting our present seas; but there is not a single *species* of any of the genera of shells found in the whole range of the *secondary* strata that is identical with a living species: all are extinct. In the oldest of the tertiary beds, some shells are found identical with living species, and the proportion of these increases the more recent the deposit, until at last they greatly predominate over the extinct species in the more recent deposits. It is thus evident that there has been an extinction of some genera and species, and a creation of others, in a constant



(Fig. B.)



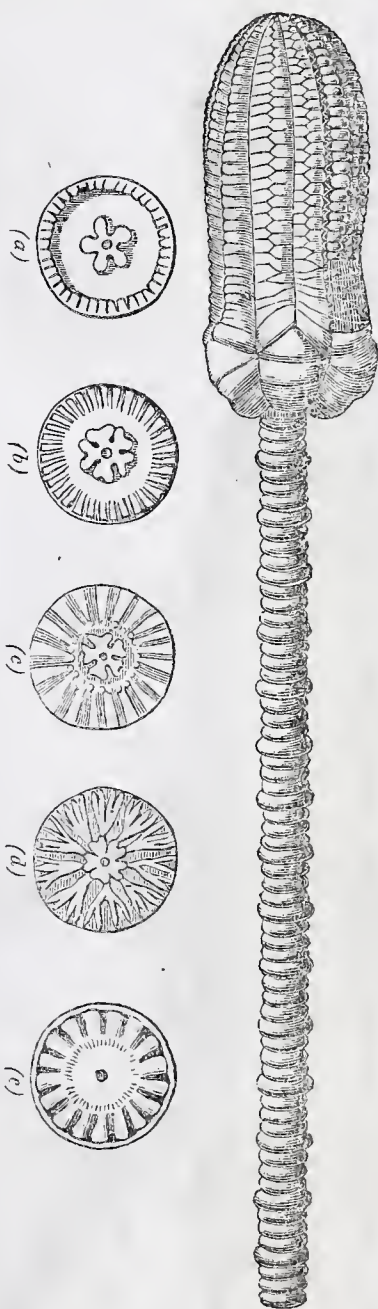
(Fig. C.)

state of progression, from the earliest periods of the earth's history. In the case of fossil shells, as well as other organic remains, a great proportion bear a strong analogy to such as are now only known to inhabit tropical seas.

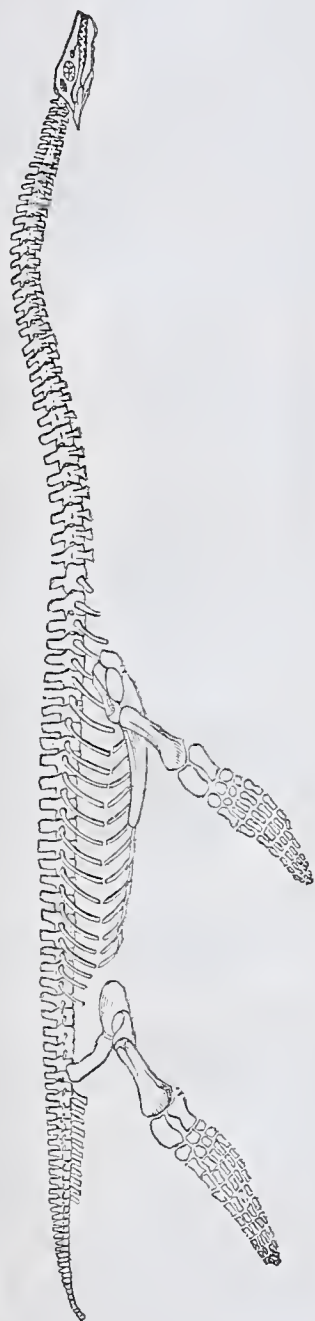
Figures C and D are specimens of two species of a crustaceous marine animal which has been wholly extinct from an early period in the formation of the crust of the globe; myriads of ages may have elapsed since it ceased to exist. It has not been found in any rock lying above the mountain limestone, and that rock is so low in the series of the strata, that the earth must have undergone many successive revolutions, each separated by an interval of vast duration, since the time when these animals were inhabitants of the sea. There are several species of the animal, which has been called *Trilobite*, from the body being composed of three longitudinal divisions or lobes. It was first brought under the notice of naturalists by the name of the Dudley fossil, being found very frequently in the limestone near the town of that name in Worcestershire, not far from Birmingham. It is met with in some spots in such immense quantities that it must have had prodigious powers of multiplication. In some parts of Wales the slate is so full of fragments of the animal that millions must have swarmed on the spot.

Another fossil animal which is very peculiar in its form, is that represented in fig. E, called the lily encrinite. It resembles that flower upon its stalk, and still more so when the several parts of which the flower-like extremity is composed, are separated and spread out; specimens of it in this state are not unfrequently met with. The animal lived in the base of the flower, and the separable parts stretched out like arms to seize its prey. It was fixed to the ground by the other extremity of the stalk. That stalk is not a single piece, but consists of a number of distinct joints like those of the back-bone, or like a necklace of beads, on which account the fossil has been sometimes called *Encrinites Moniliformis*, or necklace-form encrinite. The stalk is perforated through its whole length, and the joints when separated have figured surfaces, such as are represented in the engraving in the circular bodies, *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*, the figure being different at different parts of the stalk. This family of radiated animals, which consists of many extinct genera and species, has not wholly disappeared like the trilobite and ammonite; living representatives of it are still found in the seas of the West Indies; but the lily encrinite, that branch of the family, is not only wholly extinct, but has been so ever since the period when the new red sandstone was deposited. It appears to have had comparatively a short existence, for it has only been found in a limestone which occurs associated with the new red sandstone.

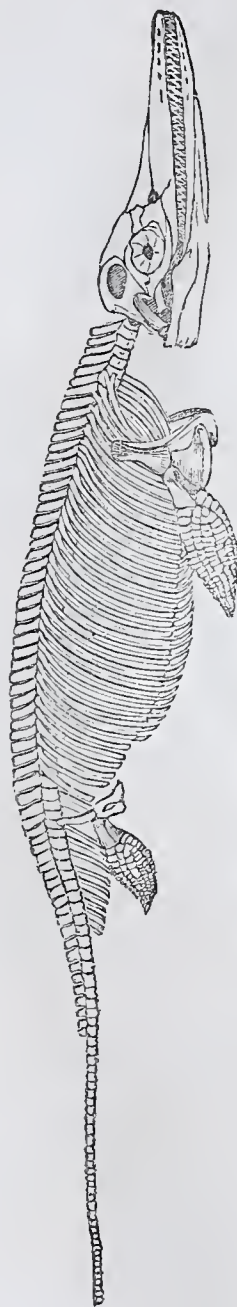
By far the most remarkable fossil remains of *extinct marine animals*, are certain species which resemble the crocodile and alligator, and often of a magnitude which these never reach; these extraordinary creatures were inhabitants of our planet at a period of its history, when the climate of the sea that covered the deposits now forming the cliffs of Lyme Regis, in Dorsetshire, was as hot as the West Indies.



(Fig. E.)



Skeleton of the *Plesiosaurus Dolichodeirus*, restored by Mr. Conybeare.



Skeleton of the *Ichthyosaurus Communis*, restored by Mr. Conybeare.

Section of the Plesiosaurus Dolichodeirus, in the position in which it was found at Lyme Regis.



The most remarkable of the fossil saurians which are found in the secondary strata are those which have been called *ichthyosaurus*, *plesiosaurus*, *megalosaurus*, and *iguanodon*. The first of these is so called from the characters of the animal partaking at the same time of the nature of a fish and of the lizard tribe; *ichthys* and *saurus* being two Greek words signifying fish and lizard. Its head resembles that of a crocodile, only it is much larger and sharper, its snout ending in a point, almost as acute as the beak of a bird: it has a most formidable supply of sharp conical teeth, no less than sixty in each jaw. Its head was of an enormous size, for jaws measuring eight feet in length have been found; and it was furnished with a pair of eyes of still more extraordinary proportion, for the oval hollows for that organ in a skull belonging to a gentleman at Bristol, measure fourteen and a half inches in their largest diameter, the size of a dish on which a tolerably good-sized turkey could be served up. The head was about a fourth of the whole length of the animal, and was joined to the body by a very short neck: the back-bone was composed of joints or *vertebræ* different from those of land animals, and similar to those of fishes; it was supplied with four paddles like those of a turtle, in the lower part of its body, and by means of these and its very powerful tail, it must have darted very swiftly through the water. It was a most singular combination of forms, for it had the snout of a dolphin, the teeth of a crocodile, the head and breast-bone of a lizard, extremities like the marine mammalia, and *vertebræ* like a fish. We can, however, form no idea of the appearance of the animal when alive, except such as is conveyed to us by the sight of the skeleton; a very imperfect one, no doubt, as we know by the difference between any animal and its skeleton placed beside it. The preceding representation of the complete skeleton of the *ichthyosaurus*, as restored in the way we have alluded to, is given by the Rev. W. Conybeare, the eminent geologist to whom we are indebted for the most complete account of these fossil saurians.

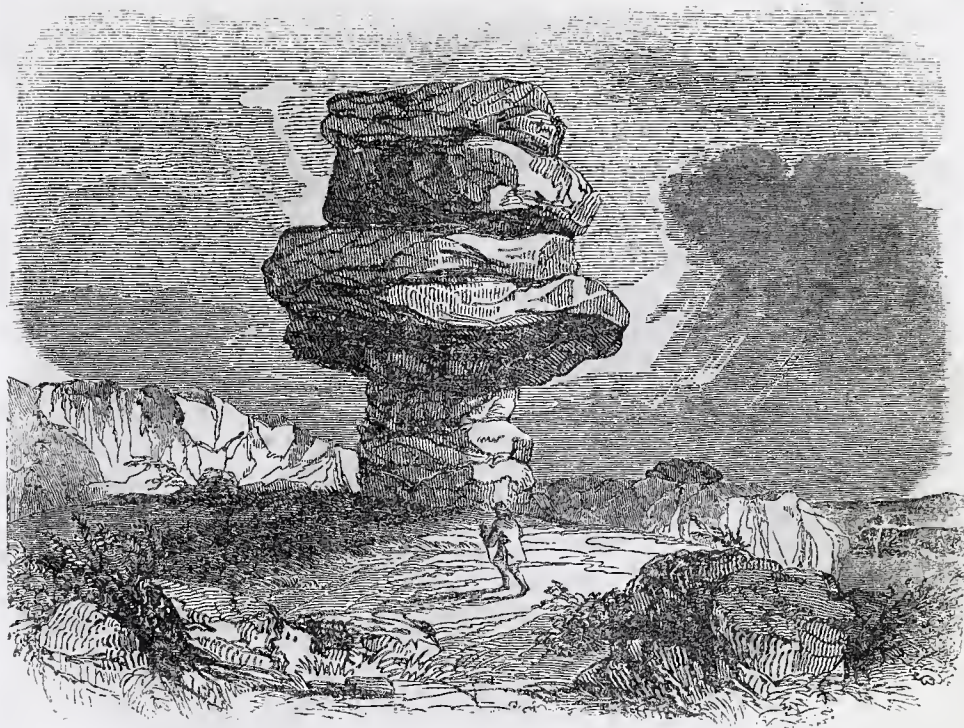
Remains of the *ichthyosaurus* have been found in all the secondary strata, between the red sandstone and the chalk in many parts of England; but they are most frequently met with in the lias limestone, and in greatest abundance at Lyme Regis in Dorsetshire. They have also been found in several places on the continent, especially in Wurtemburgh.

The *plesiosaurus* is so called from its near approach to the lizard tribe, *plesion* being the Greek for near. It has a considerable resemblance in the body to the *ichthyosaurus*, but the head is much smaller, and is altogether of a different structure; but its most remarkable character is the great length of its neck. In man, all quadrupeds and other mammalia, there are exactly seven joints or *vertebræ* in the neck; and so strict is the adherence to this rule, that there is precisely the same number in the short, stiff neck of the whale, and the long flexible neck of the giraffe. Reptiles have from three to eight joints—birds many more; the swan, which has the most, is enabled to make the graceful curves of its neck by being provided with twenty-three of those separate *vertebræ*; but the *plesiosaurus* had no less than forty-one. In order to convey to our readers an idea of the state in which fossil-bones are found, we have given a representation of a *plesiosaurus*, found in 1823 at Lyme Regis; but we must remark that, mutilated as it seems, it is rare to find bones lying so nearly in the form of the skeleton as those are. The specimen occurred imbedded in the shale or slaty clay, which lies between the beds of lias limestone, and the skeleton has been crushed almost flat by the vast weight of stone lying above it.

Mr. Conybeare, to whom we are indebted for the first description and name of the *plesiosaurus*, has given us the representation on page 19, of this extraordinary long-necked reptile, in a restored state, in the same way as he has given us a figure of the *ichthyosaurus*.

Some fragments of the bones of a saurian of gigantic size were discovered by Dr. Buckland a few years ago in the quarry of Stonesfield, near Woodstock, in Oxfordshire. According to the opinion of Cuvier, who examined them, they must have belonged to an individual of the lizard tribe, measuring forty feet in length, and having a bulk equal to that of an elephant seven feet high. This fossil animal was distinguished by Dr. Buckland with the name of *megalosaurus*, on account of its great size, *megale* being Greek for great.

In Cornwall and Devonshire, eminences of granite, serpentine, and felspar porphyry, occur, while the slopes resting on them are composed of different kinds of slate. The granite of this district is extensively used for paving in London, though considered less hard and durable than that brought from Scotland. In other places

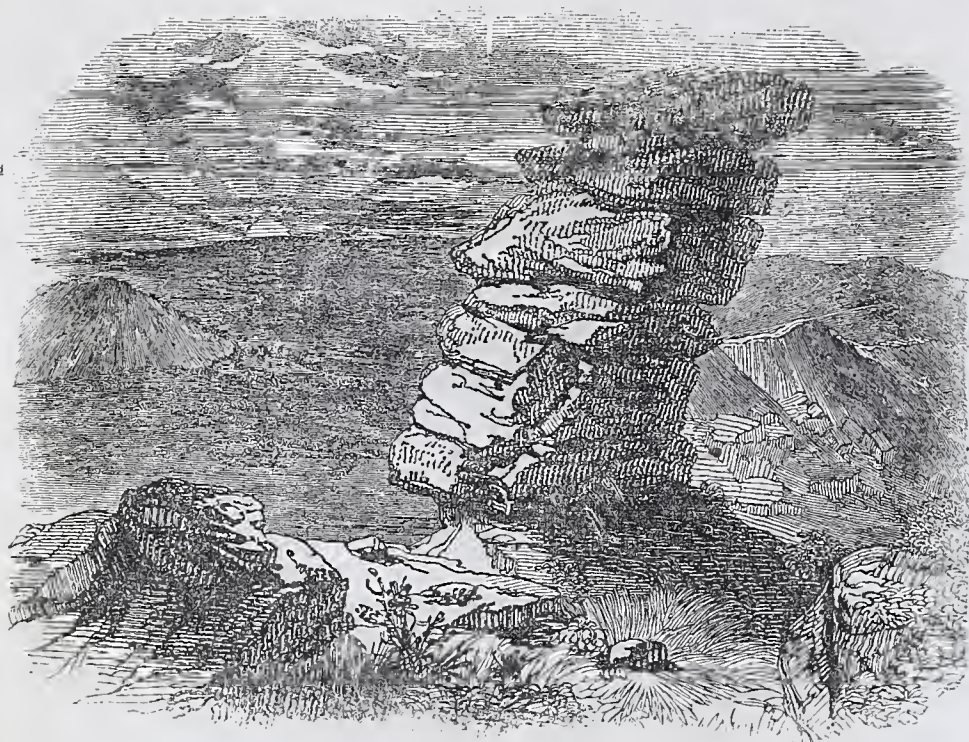


The Cheesewring, as seen from the northwest.

the granite often assumes remarkable shapes. The Cheesewring is a natural pile or combination of rude granite rocks, in the parish of St. Cleer, Cornwall, between Liskeard and Launceston. It rises to the height of thirty-two feet, and stands near the top of a high hill. The stones are placed one upon another, and from the shape of the pile (probably resembling an ancient cheese-press) the name appears to have been derived. It consists of eight stones, of which the upper ones are so much larger than those below, and project so far over the middle and base, that it has for many generations excited astonishment how so ill-constructed a pile could have resisted the storms of such an exposed situation. Some art may possibly have been used in reducing the size of one of the central stones, and in clearing the base from circumjacent rocks, but otherwise this curiosity is entirely a work of nature.

On the same hill are several other similar piles of granite rocks, but not one of them is so singular in its relative proportions. One stone is of the enormous measurement of eleven yards in length, nine yards in breadth, with an average thickness of little more than two feet. The shape of the hill is that of a truncated cone, the diameter of the summit being about one hundred yards. Round this flat summit is an immense number of small stones, piled up to form a rampart, and probably used in olden times both for defence and for attack on assaulters. Within the circle are many large masses of rocks, with small excavations on the tops of them, called "rock basins," formed, in all probability, by the natural decomposition of the granite, under the united action of the sun, rain, and wind. Detached granules of the stone, and others which may be loosened by the finger, are generally found at the bottom of these basins, and attest their most frequent origin, though others may have been partly formed by man, to supply his thirst or to perform his sacrifices.

The Kilmarth Rocks are a lofty range of half a mile in length, running east and west, about two miles northward from the Cheesewring, and in the parish of Linkinhorne, Cornwall. The westernmost pile, represented in the sketch, stands on the summit of this elevated ridge, and is in itself about twenty-eight feet high. It overhangs at least twelve or fifteen feet toward the north; and, when viewed from the east, appears so slightly based that a man or a strong gale might suffice to shove the



Kilmarth Rocks, as seen from the southeast.

whole mass over the tremendous precipice; but when surveyed from the western side, its foundation appears more solid, and it will require, perhaps, many ages to subvert the wonderful pile. The immense size of many of the granite rocks of which this ridge is formed, and the rude and heterogeneous manner in which they lie one upon another, together with the wildness and extent of the surrounding panorama, overpower the mind with awe and astonishment at the grandeur of the operations of nature.

The Welsh mountains are composed chiefly of varieties of slate, with some intermixture of volcanic rocks, as basalt and trap; while a rich coal-field, one hundred miles in length and from five to ten in breadth, rests upon their southern verge, extending from Glamorgan into Pembrokeshire, being the largest coal-field in Great Britain.

As coal forms so important a feature in the prosperity of Great Britain, we shall here devote some space to the subject of coal in that country. The annexed outline map* gives a general view of all the coal-fields of England; and it will be seen that fully one half of the country is destitute of coal: for all that lies east and south of the double line Z Z, from the mouth of the Tees, in Yorkshire, to Lyme Regis, in Dor-

* The numbers prefixed to the following places, corresponding to those on the map, show their several locations:—

1 Newcastle.	9 Liverpool.	17 Birmingham.	24 Bedford.	31 Portsmouth.
2 North Shields.	10 Manchester.	18 Oxford.	25 Cambridge.	32 Exeter.
3 South Shields.	11 Scarborough.	19 Gloucester.	26 Dover.	33 Plymouth.
4 Sunderland.	12 Derby.	20 Windsor.	27 Canterbury.	34 Falmouth.
5 Durham.	13 Nottingham.	21 Bristol.	28 Maidstone.	35 Caernarvon.
6 Cocker mouth.	14 Leicester.	22 Bath.	29 Hastings.	36 Cardigan.
7 Whitehaven.	15 Northampton.	23 Colchester.	30 Brighton.	37 Caernarthen.
8 Lancaster.	16 Shrewsbury.			

The dark shade of the tint shows the extent of the coal-fields. The lighter shade represents the districts of the country supplied by them.

The lines which express the tints are in both cases parallel to each other, and in each of the twelve districts have a different direction, except the Newcastle and Durham, in which, for the sake of clearness, the coal-fields (1) have been left black, and the places supplied by them white. Each district is surrounded by a strong black outline.



setshire, is composed of the superior secondary strata; and although some of these do sometimes contain thin beds of coal of a particular kind, it may be confidently said, that the kind of coal which is usually consumed will never be found in those upper secondary strata; and, unless under very favorable circumstances, the inferior kind alluded to can never be worked with profit. It will also be seen how comparatively small a space the coal measures occupy. It is necessary to remind our readers, that the spaces here marked with dark lines are the *geological* boundaries of the coal formations, which consist of many different kinds of stone besides coal; and that it must not be supposed that workable coal is spread over the whole space marked by the darker shade. Not only is that far from being the case, but there is a very large part of all those spaces where not a trace of coal is to be seen, there being only sandstones, limestones, or shales, the other members of the coal formations.

Besides showing the positions of the different coal deposits, the map exhibits the boundaries of the country which each supplies with fuel. We are indebted for this information to the evidence given by Frederick Page, Esq., before the committee of the House of Commons on the coal-trade, in 1830. Mr. Page stated that, in the course of several years' travelling over England, he had collected so much information as to the distribution of coals by the different inland navigations, as to be able to construct a map on which the boundaries were laid down: he gave a copy of that map to the committee, who published it along with their report. In the annexed map, it is to be understood that all the space included within the line which surrounds a coal deposit is supplied from that source: the larger districts are further distinguished by a small letter corresponding with the capital letter which marks the coal-field. These boundaries are, of course, not rigorously correct; but they are sufficiently so to give a tolerably accurate general view how far the market of each coal-field extends, independent of foreign export and the supplies to Scotland from the Northumberland district, and to Ireland from the western coal-fields. The extent to which the consumption of a coal-field reaches depends upon a variety of circumstances, such as the facility of transport by sea or by canals, the quality of the coal, and its price at the pit's mouth—this last must be in a great degree regulated by the expense of bringing it to the surface, which is very variable, according to situations.

There are in England and Wales twelve great coal-fields, of which those marked I., II., IV., VI., XII., are the most important. These are:—

- I. The Northumberland and Durham fields, the almost exclusive feeders of London, and supplying, besides, the whole of the eastern and southern coasts from Berwick to Plymouth, and as far inland as the county of Bedford. Formerly the inland markets extended further; but the extension of canals has brought other and cheaper coals into competition. There is also a very large foreign export, and a considerable quantity is sent to Scotland.
- II. The Yorkshire, Nottinghamshire, and Derbyshire fields.
- III. The Whitehaven fields.
- IV. The South-Lancashire fields. This, with the Yorkshire and Nottinghamshire fields, are the foundation of English advances in woollen and cotton manufactures, the principal seats of which are upon them.
- V. The North-Staffordshire, or Pottery fields.
- VI. The South-Staffordshire, or Dudley and Warwickshire fields—not of great superficial extent, but immensely productive, and containing the thickest seam of coal in the island. It is also one great seat of iron manufactures.
- VII. The Shropshire fields, including Coal-Brook dale and the plain of Shrewsbury.
- VIII. Forest of Dean field.
- IX. South-Gloucestershire, or Bristol fields.
- X. Somersetshire field.
- XI. North-Wales, or Flintshire fields.
- XII. The South-Wales fields—comparatively little worked as yet, but the most extensive of all, and upon which the country will have to depend when the other fields are exhausted.

Thus it will be seen, that all the coal-fields, and all the great seats of English manufactures, lie to the north and west of the line Z Z, which is the boundary of the middle and superior strata of the secondary series; for, with the exception of some

detached points in Somersetshire and Glamorganshire, on the Bristol channel, neither the lias limestone, nor any of the formations superior to it, are found westward of that line. The new red sandstone, which is immediately under the lias, and covers so vast a surface in the midland and northern counties, lies all to the north and west of the line; many of the coal-fields are surrounded by it, and it is possible that others may be discovered within its domain, either where it is partially denuded, or where it is so thin that it may be sunk through without great expense. All searches for coal in the red sandstone itself would, according to every probability, end in disappointment.

The Newcastle coal-field, however, is by far the most important of all those at present worked in England, either as regards the extent of the works, the productiveness of the mines, the quality of the fuel, or the markets which it supplies. The area covered by this coal-field will be seen by the following map:—

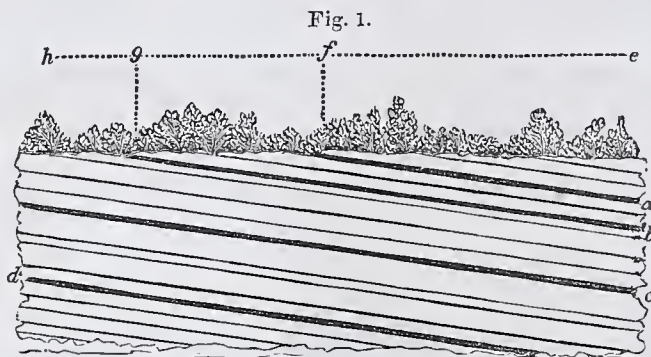


- A. The coal field, tinted with horizontal lines.
 B B. Millstone grit, tinted with lines sloping to the right.
 C C. Magnesian limestone, tinted with lines sloping to the left.
- | | | |
|---------------|---------------------|--------------------|
| 1 Alnwick. | 6 North Shields. | 11 Barnard Castle. |
| 2 Morpeth. | 7 South Shields. | 12 Appleby. |
| 3 Stanington. | 8 Sunderland. | 13 Darlington |
| 4 Newcastle. | 9 Durham. | 14 Stockton. |
| 5 Hexham. | 10 Bishop Auckland. | 15 Hartlepool. |

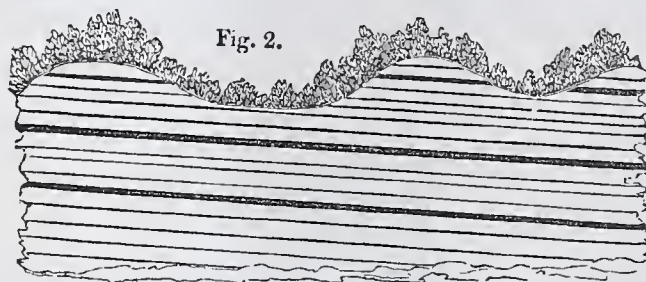
The length of the coal-field, from the Tees to the Coquet, is almost fifty-five miles; its greatest breadth, between the mouth of the Tyne and the western pits, about twenty-two miles. It is bounded on the east, from a short distance south of Shields very nearly to its southern termination, by strata of magnesian limestone, under which the coal measures have been found to be prolonged in many places: along the northern half of its eastern limit, the coal measures are exposed in the cliffs on the seashore. The whole of the western side is bounded by a coarse sandstone, called the millstone grit, upon which the coal measures repose.

The coal measures are not spread horizontally over the area, but lie in an inclined position, and at different angles of inclination in different parts of it. The consequence of this is, that the same seams are found at much greater depths from the surface in one colliery than in another. Nor will two distant parts of the field give the same succession of strata in a vertical section, either as regards the beds of stone, or the seams of coal, in point of quality and thickness: the same seam of coal swells out in one place, and in another thins off so much as not to be worth working; and

the same thing occurs with the sandstone and shale: a bed of stone, or seam of coal, which in one pit is scarcely perceptible, will increase in another pit to several feet. Neither is it to be understood that these coal strata are continuous over the whole area, although that they once were so is more than probable. In many parts of the district, a vertical section of the ground would at one time have presented an appearance similar to the following:—



But the section below (Fig. 2) shows that the surface has been deeply indented, and great portions of the superior strata have been carried away, so that it exhibits the following appearance:—



This deep furrowing of the land, which is common more or less to every coal-field in the island, has been ascribed by geologists to the action of great floods at a period antecedent to all human records, carrying along with them gravel and blocks of stone, which have ploughed up the ground and borne off the loosened materials to be afterward deposited in distant parts, leaving behind them extensive valleys. The effect of this action has been called denudation by geologists; and the valleys so formed, which are not peculiar to coal-fields, but exist in many other parts of England, are called valleys of denudation. The weald of Sussex and Kent, between the South Downs and the North Downs, is a remarkable example on a great scale. The surface of the coal-field of Northumberland and Durham has been scooped out in a remarkable degree by these denudations. The valley through which the river Teame runs extends from north to south, between the Wear and Tyne, and is between one and two miles broad. The coal measures must here have been originally continuous, entirely across the valley from hill to hill; but they have been excavated and carried bodily away, not only to the level of the bed of the Teame, but to the amount of sometimes more than one hundred and eighty feet beneath the actual bed of that river. Under the surface of the fields, on both sides of the Teame, drifted rubbish and gravel fill a broad and deep trough in the coal measures; from this trough and the valley above it there has been a total removal of the superior strata, including several seams of coal, which, had they been continuous in their original extent, would have been highly valuable.

The export of coals from the Tyne and the Wear amounted, in 1828, to about three millions two hundred thousand tons, and the consumption on the spot to about six hundred and sixty thousand tons. Thus the total annual sale of coals from the Newcastle and Durham coal-fields is probably not much under five millions of tons.

So vast a consumption leads naturally to the inquiry, "What, at this rate of annual excavation, will be the probable duration of this coal-field?" This question occupied a great deal of the attention of the committees of both houses of Parliament, already spoken of, and there was a very wide difference in the answers which they received. Mr. Taylor was asked by the lords' committee, if he had formed any calculation of the extent, produce, and duration, of the Durham and Northumberland coal-fields; and he replied that he had endeavored to do so, and gave in the following statement, which he said, however, was only to be considered as an approximation:—

He estimates the Durham coal-field south of the Tyne to embrace		
an area of - - - - -	594	square miles.
The Northumberland coal-field - - - - -	243	"
Amounting to - - - - -	837	"
And he considers that of this there had been excavated - - - - -	105	"
Leaving, in 1829 - - - - -	732	"

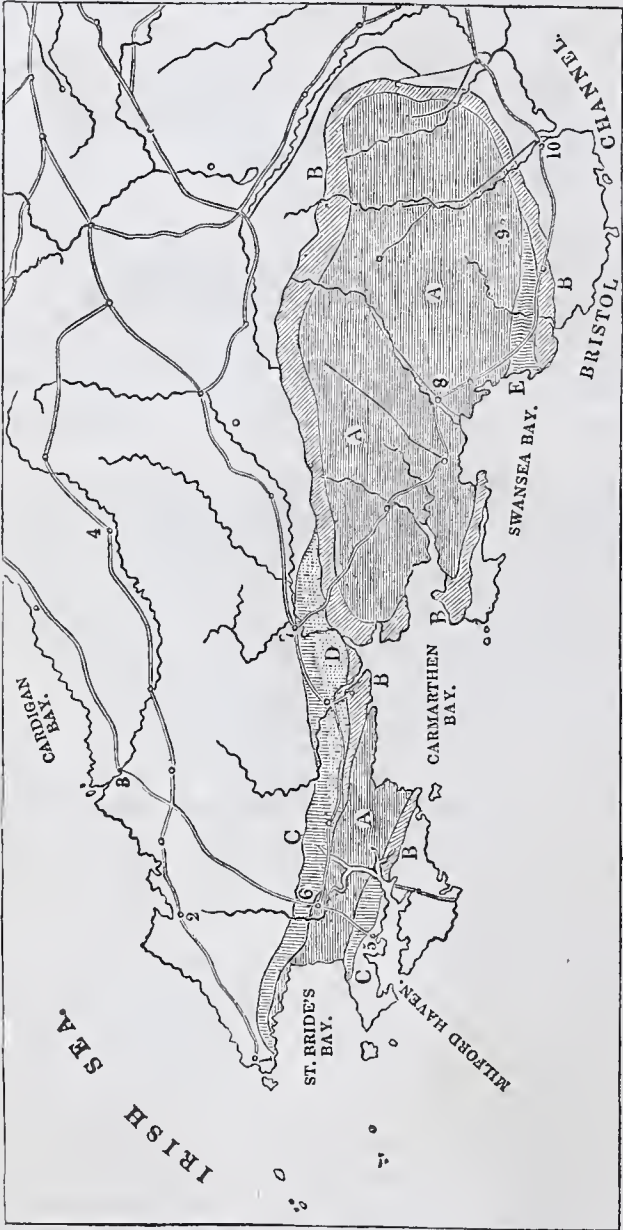
Then estimating the workable coal strata at an average thickness of 12 feet, the contents of one square mile will be 12,390,000 tons, and of 732 square miles - - - - -	9,069,480,000	tons.
And deducting one third part for loss in working, and from disturbances in the strata - - - - -	3,073,160,000	"
There remain - - - - -	6,046,320,000	"

This very comfortable and consolatory view of the present race, and of that of a far distant posterity, as regards this valuable commodity, is, however, a good deal disturbed by the opinions of Dr. Buckland and Mr. Sedgwick, the professors of geology at Oxford and Cambridge. Dr. Buckland being asked whether he considered the estimate of Mr. Taylor correct, answered that he thought it much exaggerated. Mr. Sedgwick is also of opinion that Mr. Taylor's estimate is too great; and both professors state the same reasons for differing so widely from the views of Mr. Taylor. He has assumed that there is a continuous thickness of twelve feet of workable coal over the whole area of seven hundred and thirty-two square miles; but all experience, both of this coal-field and of every other, is unfavorable to this assumption, for not only are the coal seams extremely variable in thickness, but they are equally so in quality, as we have already shown. The opinions of the learned professors are confirmed by another scientific observer, Mr. Bakewell, who, in his "Introduction to Geology," discusses this question, and calculates that the coal-fields now under consideration will not last above three hundred and sixty years. All these calculations, however, have reference only to the best qualities of coal—to those which can be raised at an expense sufficiently low to enable them to be sold at a remunerating price, in competition with other coals.

It appears to be very clearly made out, that all those parts of the country which are now supplied with fuel from the Northumberland and Durham mines will continue to enjoy that advantage for the next four hundred years; and those who are not so selfish and unpatriotic as to be indifferent to the fate of their posterity after the year 2,233, will learn with satisfaction that, as far as England's prosperity is connected with an abundant supply of coal, there is no danger of its sustaining any check for a much more extended period, as there is a store in reserve far greater than there was in the whole of the north-of-England field before a single fire was lighted by its produce. This extensive repository is in the coal-field of South Wales.

The geographical position of this vast deposit of the coal measures will be seen by the map on page 28. It lies in a great basin of the carboniferous limestone, which rises from under the coal strata nearly all around the limit of the coal-field. In a part of Pembroke-shire the limestone is wanting, and the coal strata rest upon slate, which is inferior to the limestone, and near Narbeth they are in contact with the old red sandstone, which lies between the slate and the limestone. In a part of the southern boundary, in Glamorganshire, the coal measures are separated from the limestone by a detached deposit of strata of posterior formation to them, and therefore lying upon them, viz., new red sandstone and lias limestone.

Map of Wales, showing the Coal Deposites.



- A, A, A.—The coal field, tinted with horizontal lines.
B, B, B.—Limestone, tinted with lines sloping to the right.
C, C, C.—Slate, tinted with perpendicular lines.
D.—Old red sandstone, tinted with dotted lines.
E.—New red sandstone, tinted with perpendicular waving lines.
- | | | | | |
|-----------------|--------------|-------------------|----------------|------------------|
| 1. St. David's. | 3. Cardigan. | 5. Milford. | 7. Carmarthen. | 9. Llantrissant. |
| 2. Fiscard. | 4. Lanbedr. | 6. Haverfordwest. | 8. Neath. | 10. Cardiff. |

The coal measures do not lie horizontally within this limestone basin, but in a trough shape, being deepest toward the middle, and rising up toward the outer limits, the ends of the several strata *cropping out*, as the miners term it, that is, appearing successively at the surface. They do not, however, form of one uniform sweep or inverted arch; for there has been a partial up-heaving of the strata, so that a section across the field from Bridgend, due north, would present the following appearance:—



There are thus two basins, the one lying to the north, the other to the south of a high ridge, *a*, which runs from Aberavon, half a mile north of the Avon, by Cefn Eglwysillan, two or three miles north of Caerphilly, a little beyond which it disappears. In the northern basin, which is by far the most extensive, the strata are much less inclined than in the southern basin; for in the former the dip of the strata is generally under ten degrees, while in the latter it is often forty-five degrees, and upward. The whole coal-field is traversed by *dikes* or *faults*, generally in a north and south direction, which throw all the strata from three hundred to six hundred feet up or down. The nature of these faults we have heretofore explained. On the western termination of the basin, in St. Bride's bay, the strata exhibit the most extraordinary marks of confusion and derangement, being vertical and twisted in every possible direction.

The extent of this coal-field, and the thickness of the seams, have been variously stated by different authors: but the estimate which is perhaps the most to be relied upon, is that of the Rev. William Conybeare, the eminent geologist, who has long resided in the country, and is perfectly familiar with its geology. It is contained in a letter addressed by him to Henry Warburton, Esq., M. P., published in the report of the committee of the house of commons, already referred to. Mr. Conybeare makes three great divisions of the coal seams—the lower, middle, and upper series; and he assigns to them, respectively, the average thickness of thirty-five, fifteen, and ten feet, making altogether sixty feet of workable coal. Martin, who described this coal-field, makes them amount to ninety-five feet; and Mr. Conybeare thinks that Martin does not overstate the amount, provided all the seams be taken into the account. But Mr. Conybeare's calculation only includes the workable coals, and he considers that those seams can not be worked with profit where it is necessary to go lower than two hundred fathoms, or twelve hundred feet, for beyond this the expense of drainage, &c., becomes enormous. Keeping the same considerations in view, Mr. Conybeare makes the following estimate of the area occupied by the coal-seams:—

For the lower series	-	-	-	-	-	525 square miles, at 35 feet thick.
“ “	-	-	-	-	-	100 “ 17 “
For the middle series	-	-	-	-	-	360 “ 16 “
For the upper series	-	-	-	-	-	64 “ 10 “

This, it is calculated, after deducting one half for loss and for what has been already worked, will amount to about eleven billions four hundred and twenty-three millions seven hundred and fifty thousand tons; and taking the annual consumption of all England at fifteen millions of tons, the provision of good coal in the South Wales basin is sufficient for seven hundred and sixty years. Taking all that remains in the Northumberland and Durham coal-fields, and all the other coal-fields of England together at three times that amount, and which we are inclined to think would not be an over-estimate, we have a supply of good coal, which, at the present rate of consumption, would last above three thousand years. How long beyond that time the inferior seams will yield a supply of fuel, we shall leave posterity to calculate.



Staffordshire Colliers.

To the east of the line drawn from Exmouth to Bath, and thence by Gloucester, Leicester, and Tadcaster, to Stockton-upon-Tees, we find the upper rocks of the secondary formation, presenting in succession red sandstone and red marl, lias limestone and clay, oolitic limestone, green sand with clay, and finally chalk. Connected with the red marl, great strata of rock-salt are found; these are extensively dug in Cheshire and Worcestershire for domestic use.

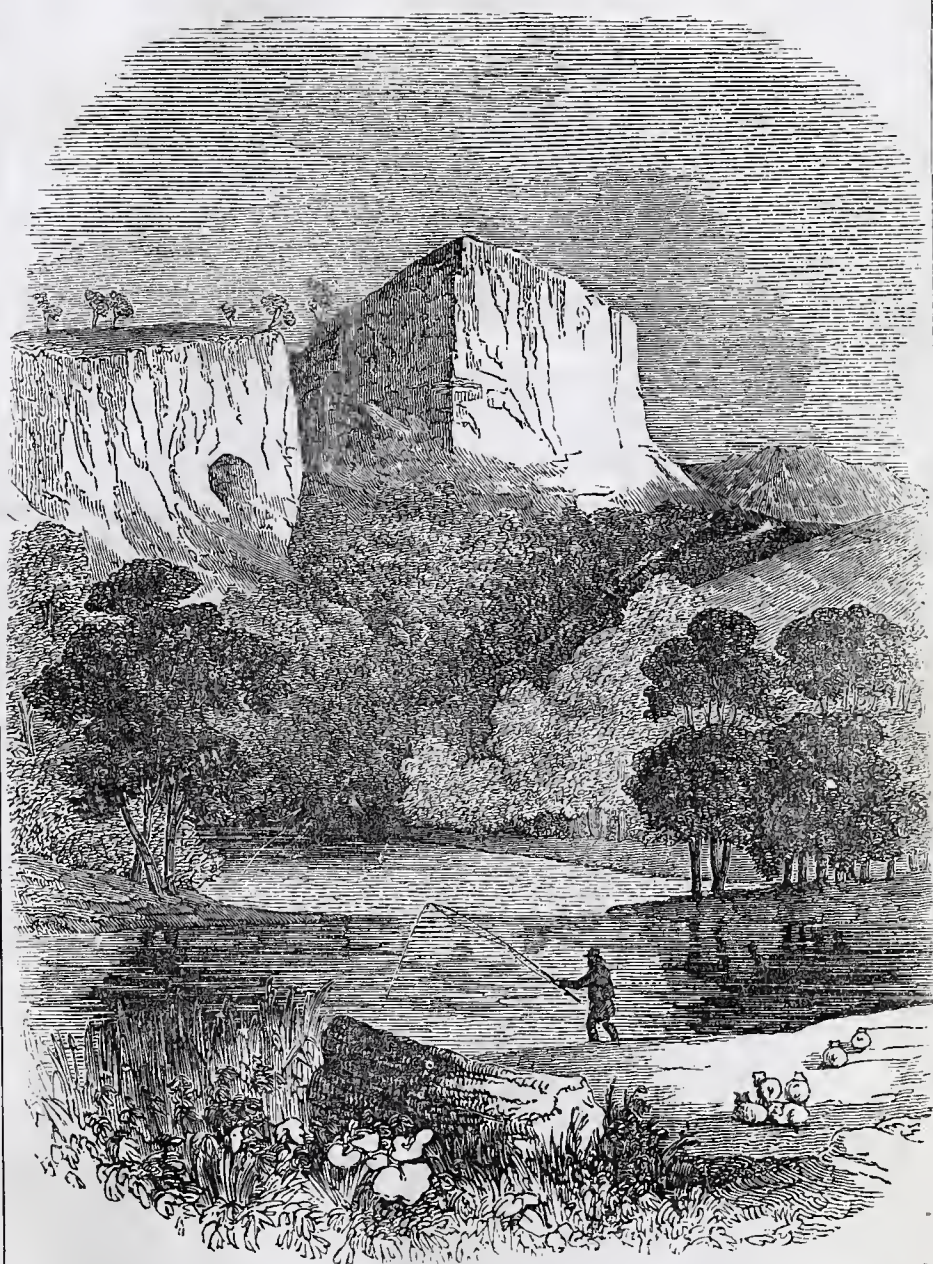
The limestone, like the granite, frequently assumes very singular forms and appearances, and has sometimes been named from its similarity to works of art. This is the case with the Matlock high tor of Derbyshire, an engraving of which is presented in the next page.

The word *tor* is a Saxon one, from whence, according to the etymologists, comes our word *tower*. The Latin *turris*, the Saxon *tor*, and the English *tower*, appear to be related in their signification; meaning, in their original sense, something erected on an eminence. We find preserved the syllable *tor*, as we find many other words which are of what are termed Cimbro-Celtic and Teutonic or Gothic origin, in the names of many places of Britain.

Matlock is well known as a summer resort of invalids and idlers, as well as of those who go, for recreation or information, to see the wonders of the peak of Derbyshire—the rocks, mines, and caverns, and other mountainous scenery of that truly singular and interesting region. “Matlock dale,” says Mr. Jewitt, in a little work called the “Matlock companion,” “is naturally a deep narrow ravine, how produced, or by what convulsion, must be left to geologists to determine. One side is formed by lofty perpendicular limestone rocks, the other by the sloping sides of giant mountains; along the bottom runs the Derwent, sometimes pent up in a narrow channel, and obstructed by the fragments which have, from time to time, fallen from the beetling tor, and sometimes spreading like a lucid lake, and reflecting as a mirror the beautiful but softened tints of the overhanging foliage.”

Matlock dale, which in the time of De Foe was almost inaccessible from the want of a road, and which, still more recently, was praised as being a retired, secluded spot, now lies on the direct road from London to Manchester. This, as is well remarked by Mr. Jewitt, though destroying the previous character of the place, has brought it more into notice, and a much larger accession of visitors than it could have otherwise received.

The high tor is a huge rock, which rises almost perpendicularly from the Derwent to a height of upward of 400 feet. The lower part is covered with foliage, but the upper part presents a broad bold front of gray limestone. It forms a part of the chain of rocks which bound the river on the east, but from its superior height and boldness is one of the most remarkable of the objects of Matlock dale, and is distinguished for its effect, even in the midst of scenery all of which is celebrated for



The High Tor at Matlock.

its picturesque beauty. On the opposite side is Masson, a rock or mountain of greater elevation than the tor, but inferior to it as a striking and picturesque object.

Lias, which extends from Lyme in Dorsetshire to Whitby in Yorkshire, is remarkable for the remains which it presents of the large saurian reptiles. Beds of oolite limestone, so called from the small egg-like globules confined in it, cover the southern part of Gloucestershire, and a great part of Oxfordshire, Northamptonshire, Rutlandshire, and the eastern side of Lincolnshire. The Portland stone, so extensively used for building, and which is quarried in the isle of Portland, belongs to this class of rocks. The chalk exists everywhere to the southeast of a line commencing near Dorchester on the south coast, and passing through Wilts, Berks, Norfolk, and so on to Flamborough head—excepting in Sussex and Kent, where it has been carried off by denudation, exposing a peculiar formation called the *wealden*, and in the bed of the Thames near London, and one or two other places, where tertiary beds of clay occur.

The chalk formation often juts out, and in some cases, as in the celebrated cliff of Dover, called “Shakspere’s Cliff” (see engraving), forms a very prominent feature of the landscape. In the first scene of the fourth act of *Lear*, the blind Gloucester, while wandering on the heath, having met his son Edgar, who does not discover himself, asks him, “Dost thou know Dover?” and when the latter answers, “Ay, Master,” rejoins—

“There is a cliff, whose high and bending head
Looks fearfully in the confined deep;
Bring me but to the very brim of it.
————— From that place
I shall no leading need.”

From the first two of these lines, the particular cliff here depicted has probably been fixed upon as that which the poet must have had in his mind. The summit of this portion of the chalky battlement formerly overhung its base, and, as Gloucester forcibly expresses it, looked fearfully *in* (not *on*, as it has often been printed) the confined deep. Shakspere’s Cliff, however, has now lost this distinguishing peculiarity. So many portions have successively fallen from it, that, instead of bending over the sea, it now retires at the top toward the land, and, as may be observed in the engraving, part of the precipice is broken off into a declivity. Another effect has been, that its height is considerably diminished, and the look down is not now so fearful as it must have been in Shakspere’s days.

Having led his father some way farther on, Edgar at length pretends to have brought him to the neighborhood of the cliff. He then exclaims—

“Come on, sir, here’s the place :—Stand still; how fearful
And dizzy ’tis to cast one’s eye so low !
The crows and choughs that wing the midway air
Show scarce so gross as beetles : half way down
Hangs one that gathers samphire ; dreadful trade !
Methinks, he seems no bigger than his head ;
The fishermen that walk upon the beach
Appear like mice ; and yon tall anchoring bark
Diminish’d to her cock ; her cock, a buoy
Almost too small for sight : the murmuring surge,
That on the unnumber’d idle pebbles chafes,
Can not be heard so high. I’ll look no more,
Lest my brain turn, and the deficient sight
Topple down headlong.”

There has been some disputation among the commentators as to the poetical merits of these lines, and Dr. Johnson has chosen to say, that he is far from thinking the description to be wrought to the utmost excellence of poetry. He conceives that it is unnatural for the mind, when one is looking down a precipice, to be made to occupy itself with the observation of particulars, instead of being overwhelmed by the one great and dreadful image of irresistible destruction. It is to be considered, however, as Mr. Mason has well remarked, that Edgar is here describing only an imaginary precipice, or, at least, not one which he was actually looking down from. The passage is to be read with a recollection of the character, or assumed character, of Edgar ; and whatever exaggeration there may be in it, which is not sanctioned by the spirit of poetic representation, may be very fairly set down to the over-excited fancy and exalted language in which, as “poor Tom,” the speaker throughout indulges.

Shakespeare's Cliff.



Some of the lines, however, independently altogether of this dramatic reference, are of exquisite beauty. What, for instance, can be more musically descriptive than—

“The crows and choughs that wing the midway air” ?

or,

“—— The murmuring surge,
That on the unnumber'd idle pebbles chafes,
Can not be heard so high” ?

These words bring the scene, not only to the eyes, but almost to the ear ; they give both the sights and the sounds.

Nor must the remarkable formations of clay be forgotten, one of which, the “Chit Rock,” at Sidmouth (see engraving), will long be remembered, although now its pictorial representation alone exists. Previous to the great storm of November, 1824, which extended over all the north of Europe, and was felt most sensibly upon the southern coast of England, this little rock formed a pretty feature in the sea view, and was the only object which broke the uniformity of the prospect. It was a mass of indurated clay, the last wreck of the land, which, at no very remote period, undoubtedly extended itself in this direction, and which has been gradually washed into the sea. The work of destruction is yet going on, and large pieces of the cliffs not unfrequently fall down (particularly under Salcombe hill) in rainy weather. The conspicuous situation of Chit Rock made it an object of interest, and gave rise to an annual festival among the fishermen, who every year formed a procession at its base, and crowned the oldest member of their body king of Chit Rock ; some of them climbed to the summit, where they fixed a flag, and a day of feasting usually concluded with a parting bowl upon the rock, which was partaken of by as many as could get to the top, and find a footing upon its very narrow dimensions.

The great storm, which destroyed so much shipping on the coast, and considerably damaged the breakwater at Plymouth, was felt very severely at Sidmouth. It took place about one o'clock, in a dark November morning. The beautiful beach was destroyed, and washed many yards up into the town ; the library and places of amusement fronting the sea were much damaged, the lower parts of the houses filled with water, and the inmates, in a number of instances, were taken from their bedroom windows in boats. When the morning dawned, the streets of the town were found filled with sand, stones, and rubbish, the shore was covered with wrecks, and Chit Rock, which had braved so many storms, was gone.

Subsequent visitors regret the loss of this little rock. It was not much in itself, but it was the only object in view on that side, and was prized accordingly. It was also a goal to be attained by those who were actively disposed ; and most persons who visited Sidmouth, once at least during their stay, made an attempt to reach it. This was a matter of some little difficulty ; it was only at low water that it could be done, and the rocks were so slippery, from the slimy seaweed by which they were always covered, that many a slip into the water has been the consequence of an insecure step, or a leap from one stone to another.

The sketch from which our engraving is taken had been made but a short time before the great storm, and not long after the celebration of the festival.

Tin ore, containing about three parts metal out of four, is found in thick veins or vertical beds in the granite of Cornwall, where it has been wrought since before the conquest of the country by the Romans. Copper ore is also found extensively in that district, generally in continuation of veins, which, in the upper parts, have been composed of tin ore ; and in several of the same veins, lead, zinc, and antimony, are found. A mountain of copper ore, named Parys mountain, has long been wrought in the isle of Anglesea, but is now supposed to be nearly exhausted.

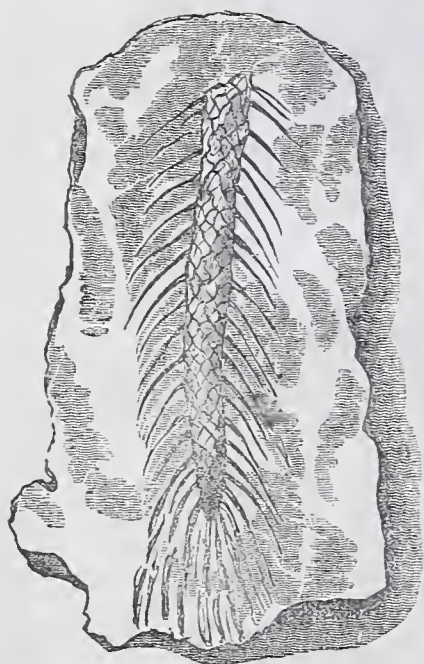
Next in importance to coal, as a mineral product, is iron, which is extensively diffused throughout England, though chiefly wrought in the neighborhood of coal, on account of that fuel being required to smelt it. In 1839, this valuable metal was produced in South Wales to the amount of 380,000 tons.

The great deposits of clay ironstone are in the coal measures ; that is, in the strata of shale, clays, sandstones, and slates, which alternate with the layers of coal. It has been well observed by Mr. Conybeare, in his “Geology of England and Wales,” that “the occurrence of this most useful of metals in immediate connexion with the fuel requisite for its reduction, and the limestone which facilitates that reduction, is

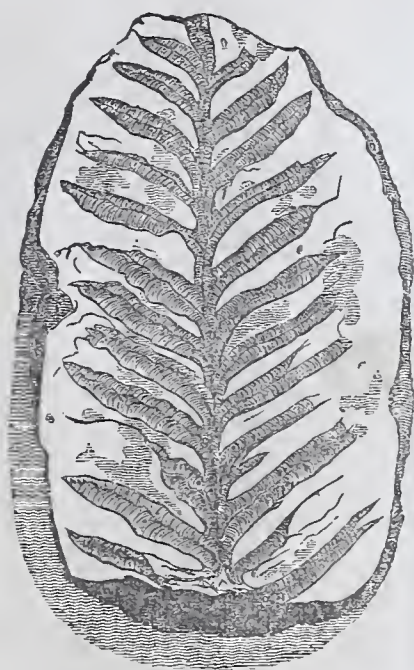


View of Chit Rock, Sidmouth.

an instance of arrangement so happily suited to the purposes of human industry, that it can hardly be considered as recurring unnecessarily to final causes, if we conceive that this distribution of the rude materials of the earth was determined with a view to the convenience of its inhabitants." Clay ironstone is not confined to the coal measures, but occurs frequently in some of the superior strata, between the chalk and the coal measures, and sometimes, though more rarely, in the tertiary, sedimentary deposits which lie above the chalk. The ore is often met with in thin continuous strata, but it seldom happens, when found in the coal measures, that there is only a single stratum of it; there are usually several strata—from ten to forty in the same tract of country—the thickness of them varying from half an inch to sixteen inches; and they generally present, at the same time, differences in their chymical composition. Clay ironstone is not confined to the coal measures, but occurs frequently in detached nodules, imbedded in the strata of clay or shale, varying in size from that of a bean to five feet in diameter, and half these dimensions in thickness, having, for the most part, a flattened form. They often lie together in one place, at regular distances, forming an almost continuous bed; but more usually the nodules are scattered promiscuously through the clay, but with their longer diameter parallel to the lines of stratification in the coal measures. In weight they vary from an ounce to upward of a ton. The size of the nodules most commonly found is about a foot in the longest diameter. They frequently contain shells, and impressions of plants similar to those met with in the shale of the coal measures. The following specimens are from Chesterfield and Alfreton, in Derbyshire:—



[Fig. 1.—A plant of the Fern tribe, called *Neuropteris* by botanists.]



[Fig. 2.—A portion of a plant, which Martin, in his "*Petrifera Derbiensia*," considers to be allied to the Fir tribe.]

The chief other districts where iron is wrought, are Staffordshire, Worcestershire, and Yorkshire; the entire produce in 1839 was a million of tons. In an account of the mineral productions of England, it would be improper to overlook its clay, so extensively used in the manufacture of pottery (chiefly in Staffordshire), and in making bricks and tiles for building.

The great southeast division of England, in which a comparatively level surface prevails, exhibits a soil which is either chiefly chalky, or chiefly clayey, according to the character of the substratum. Interspersed are a few sandy tracts, of which Bagshot heath may be cited as an example. In the mountainous districts, the usual light soil resulting from the early rocks prevails, excepting where, in the north, there

has been a peaty admixture. Upon the whole, England may be said to possess a large proportion of good and productive soil. Probably not above one ninth of the entire surface (Wales being included) is unsusceptible of tillage.

The climate of England is, as already mentioned, remarkable for its exemption from extremes of heat and cold. It displays an uncommon amount of variation within a narrow range. The average temperature in winter is about 42° of Fahrenheit; in summer, the day temperature is generally about 62° . It is only on rare occasions that the thermometer reaches 80° , or sinks below 20° . The neighborhood of the sea, which partly accounts for this moderation, is also the cause why the climate of England is more humid than is usual in continental countries of similar latitude. Being inclined to cold and damp, it is more favorable to the growth than to the ripening of vegetable productions. It is certainly not unfavorable to either the physical or moral condition of the people. Perhaps even its uncertainty has been the subject of too much grumbling. On this point we may adduce the cheerful opinion of Charles II., as recorded by Sir William Temple. "I must needs," says Sir William, "add one thing more in favor of our climate, which I heard the king say, and I thought new and right, and truly like a king of England that loved and esteemed his own country: it was in reply to some of the company that were reviling the English climate, and extolling those of Italy and Spain, or at least of France. He said he thought that was the best climate where he could be abroad in the air with pleasure, or at least without trouble and inconvenience, the most days of the year, and the most hours of the day; and *this he thought he could be in England more than in any other country in Europe.*" Devonshire and some adjacent districts on the southern coast enjoy a temperature which in winter is, at an average, two, three, four, and even in some instances five degrees above the rest; and these districts are therefore recommended for the residence of persons affected by pulmonary disease.

CHAPTER II.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.

THE most conspicuous feature in the botany of England is the fresh and luxuriant herbage, resulting from the humidity of the climate, and which, though apt to be overlooked by the natives from familiarity, never fails to strike the minds of foreigners with surprise.

Much of the surface was formerly under wood; but this has for ages been chiefly confined to particular forests, to the neighborhood of great mansions, and the enclosures of fields. Several large royal forests still exist in England, the most considerable being New Forest, in Hampshire (66,942 acres), and Dean Forest, in Gloucestershire (23,015 acres). That of Windsor, though famed from its situation and the poetry of Pope, is much smaller, being only 4,402 acres. These were anciently the scenes of courtly sport, but are now in part reduced to cultivation, or reserved for the production of timber to be used for the public service. The *parks* around the seats of the nobility and gentry are a peculiar and most inviting feature of the English landscape. A mixture of green open glades with masses of old well-grown timber, they are scenes of great sylvan beauty; while the existence of so much pleasure-reserved ground in a country where nearly every acre would be profitable under tillage, conveys a strong impression of the opulence of England. The principal trees are the oak, elm, beech, ash, chestnut, sycamore, poplar, and willow. The vine was at one time extensively cultivated in southern England, but is now seen only in a few detached places.

The leading grain in England is wheat; barley, oats, and rye, being in a great measure local to the less-favored districts. The turnip and potato are almost everywhere cultivated; and peas, beans, and clover, are extensively diffused. Hops are produced in the county of Surrey, Worcester, and Hereford. Hemp, flax, and some other useful productions of the soil, are less conspicuous. The principal fruit-trees

are the apple, pear, cherry, and plum; but many others are cultivated under particularly careful circumstances. The English garden produces a great variety of pot-herbs, most of which have been introduced from the continent within the last three centuries.

Agriculture is, in England, in a progressive state, but is yet not nearly so far advanced as in the better parts of Scotland. Previous to the eighteenth century, no advance had been made from the most simple modes of tillage and husbandry. The chief improvements since then are thus enumerated in a popular work: "The gradual introduction of a better system of rotation, since the publication of Tull's 'Horse-hoeing Husbandry,' and other agricultural works, from 1700 to 1750; the improvement of live-stock, commenced by Bakewell about 1760; the raised-drill system of growing turnips, the use of lime, and the convertible husbandry, by Pringle, and more especially by Dawson, about 1765; the improved swing-plough by Small, about 1790; and the improved thrashing-machine, by Mickle, about 1795. The field-culture of the potato, shortly after 1750; the introduction of the Swedish turnip, about 1790; of spring wheat, about 1795; of summer wheat, about 1800; and of mangel-wurtzel more recently, have, with the introduction of other improved field-plants, and improved breeds of animals, contributed to increase the products of agriculture; as the enclosing of common field lands and wastes, and the improvements of mosses and marshes, have contributed to increase the produce and salubrity of the general surface of the country."

Mr. M'Culloch calculates that twelve millions of acres are cultivated in England as follows:—

Wheat,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,800,000	acres.
Barley and rye,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	900,000	"
Oats and beans,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3,000,000	"
Clover,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,300,000	"
Roots (turnips, potatoes, &c.)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,200,000	"
Hops and garden products,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	150,000	"
Fallow,	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,650,000	"
									12,000,000	"

The value of the crops is estimated by the same writer at £72,000,000. He also calculates 17,000,000 acres of pasture-land as producing £59,000,000.

The chief defects of the agricultural system of England are in the modes of tillage. Cumbrous machinery is employed to do what might be better done by a lighter and cheaper kind: thus, five horses, and even more, are sometimes seen at one plough, while the heaviest lands in Scotland require only two. The virtue of draining is scarcely dreamt of in many districts of England, while in Scotland it is in some places doubling the produce, besides improving the salubrity of the climate. English farmers are too little educated to be ready to adopt improved modes of agriculture; and, among the class of landlords, these have hitherto been too much overlooked.* It seems surprising, yet is quite true, that in one district of the island of Great Britain, expensive and unproductive modes, scarcely in the least better than those which prevailed during the wars of the roses, will be followed, without the least suspicion that they are wrong, although other districts, which might be reached by a day's journey, present appearances of a reflecting skill and dexterity, the general diffusion of which would be attended with incalculable benefit to both landlords and tenants. It is gratifying, however, to know that this state of things is not likely to last much longer. The English nobility are now supporting an agricultural association, which is to proceed after the manner of the eminently useful Highland society of Scotland, in promoting improvements in this important branch of the national industry. We may therefore hope, in another generation, to see the splendid soil of England turned to its full account.

* We have been assured that, in some districts, where the stranger is surprised to see the flail still in operation, the farmers and landlords are not unaware of the superiority of the thrashing-machine; but having only the alternative of supporting the laboring class by this means, or in the condition of paupers, they prefer the former. It is needless to remark, that this is only a misapplication of the powers of the laboring class, which can only tend to increase poverty, and which we may hope to see in time abandoned.

CHAPTER III.

THE PEOPLE.—THEIR CHARACTER.

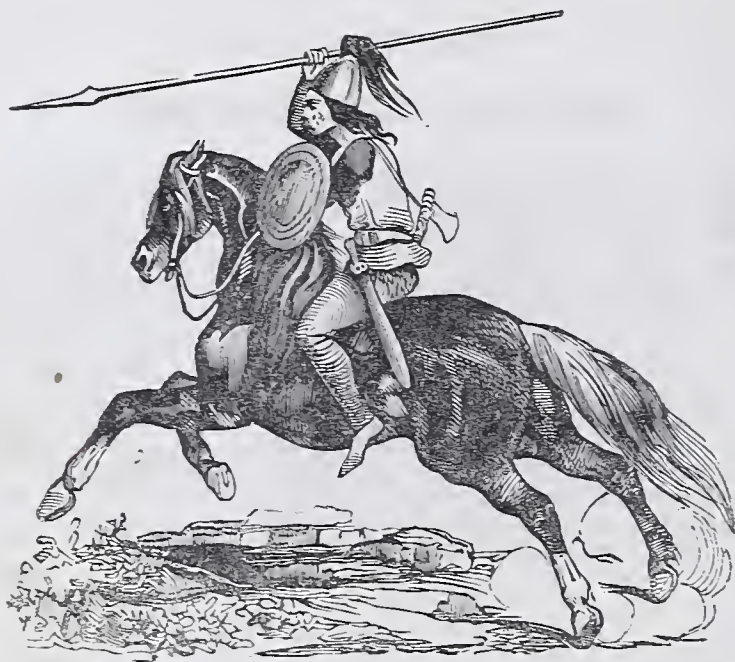
THE constituent elements of the English population are to be traced in the history of the country. The first inhabitants were Britons (see engraving, below), probably a mixed Celtic race, and who, during the time of the possession of the country by the Romans, must have become slightly changed by the admixture of that race. Upon a scattered population of Romanized Britons came the great wave of the Saxon invasion, in the fifth and sixth centuries. The Britons are usually said to have been driven to the west; but probably this was not so much the case as has been generally thought, for it is rarely that any invasion expels the mass of a people from the ground they have long occupied. After this, however, the predominant element of English society was undoubtedly Saxon, the Norman conquest only adding to it a French aristocracy, which little affected the great bulk of the population. The English, therefore, exclusive of the Welsh, who are Britons almost unchanged, may be regarded as in the main a Teutonic people, an admixture of British or Celtic entering into the composition always in less and less measure as we advance from Wales toward the eastern coasts, where the people are nearly pure Saxon.



Ancient Britons.

According to an acute writer: "The Saxon Englishman is distinguished from other races by a stature rather low, owing chiefly to the neck and limbs being short, by the trunk and vital system being large, and the complexion, irides,* and hair, light; and by the face being broad, the forehead large, and the upper and back part of the

* Plural of iris, the colored part of the eye, surrounding the pupil.



Ancient Briton on Horseback.

head round, and rather small. In his walk, the Englishman [understanding the Saxon Englishman] rolls, as it were, on his centre. This is caused by the breadth of the trunk, and the comparative weakness of the limbs. The broader muscles, therefore, of the former, aid progression by a sort of rolling motion, throwing forward first one side and then another. The mental faculties of the Englishman are not absolutely of the highest order; but the absence of passion gives them relatively a great increase, and leaves a mental character equally remarkable for its simplicity and its practical worth. The most striking of those points in English character, which may be called fundamental, are *cool observation*, *unparalleled single-mindedness*, and *patient perseverance*. This character is remarkably homogeneous.

"The cool observation of the Englishman is the foundation of some other subordinate, but ~~very~~ important points in his character. One of the most remarkable of these is that real curiosity, but absence of wonder, which makes the *nil admirari* a maxim of English society. It is greatly associated, also, with that reserve for which the English are not less remarkable.

"The single-mindedness of the Englishman is the foundation of that sincerity and bluntness, which are perhaps his chief characteristics; which fit him so well for the business of life, and on which his commercial character depends; which make him hate (if he can hate anything) all crookedness of procedure, and which alarm him even at the insincerities and compliances of politeness.

"The perseverance of the Englishman is the foundation of that habit which guides so many of his own actions, and that custom in which he participates with all his neighbors. It is this which makes universal cant, as it has been profanely termed,* not reasoning, the basis of his morals; and precedent, not justice, the basis of his jurisprudence. But it is this also which, when his rights are outraged, produces that grumbling which, when distinctly heard, effectually protects them; and it is this which creates that public spirit, to which, on great emergencies, he rises with all his fellow-countrymen, and in which he persists until its results astonish even the nations around him.

* The word must not here be understood as implying hypocrisy, of which the Saxon temperament is very innocent.

"Now, a little reflection will show, that of the three fundamental qualities I have mentioned, the first seeming may easily be less amiable than the final result shall be useful. To a stranger of differently constructed mind, the cold observation, and, in particular, the slowness and reserve which must accompany it, may seem unsociable; but they are inseparable from such a construction of mind, and they indicate not pride, but that respect for his feelings which the possessor thinks them entitled to, and which he would not violate in others. The dignity, therefore, which in this case the Englishman feels, is not *hauteur*; and he is as rarely insolent to those who are below, as timid to those who are above him.

"In regard to the absence of passion from the English mind, it is this which forbids one to be charmed with music, to laugh at comedy, to cry at tragedy, to show any symptom of joy or sorrow in the accidents of real life; which has no accurate notion of grief or wretchedness, and can not attach any sort of meaning to the word ecstasy; and which, for all these reasons, has a perfect perception of whatever is ridiculous. Hence it is, that in his domestic, his social, and his public relations, it is perhaps less affection than duty that guides the conduct of an Englishman; and, if any one questions the moral grandeur which this sentiment may attain, let him call to mind the example of it, which, just before the victory of Trafalgar, was given by Nelson in the simple and sublime communication to his fleet—"England expects every man to do his *duty*!" Which is the instance that equals this even in the forged records of the Roman glory? Happily, too, the excess of hatred is as little known to the Englishman as excess of love; and revenge is abhorrent to his nature. Even in the pugilistic combat he shakes hands with his antagonist before he begins; he scorns to strike him when he is down; and, whether vanquished or victor, he leaves his antagonist neither cast down nor triumphant.

"The extraordinary value of such a character is obvious enough. British liberty and British commerce are its results: neither the Scottish nor Irish mind would have attained them."

In this sketch, though clever and forcible, some conspicuous features of the social character of the English are overlooked. The domesticity of the Englishman's mode of life is very remarkable, when taken in contrast with the lounging, open-air existence of continental nations. The Englishman delights in his home, and spends much of his time in it—a result to which the nature of the climate undoubtedly contributes. He appreciates his home very highly, calls his house his castle, and prides himself on its being inviolable even by the emissaries of the law. The members of his family, his wife, his sons and daughters, are taken along by him in most of his recreations and pleasures. The conjugal tie is deemed peculiarly sacred, inasmuch that the slightest dishonor offered to it is universally resented. It can not be said, however, that the affections of kindred are much recognised in England beyond the nearest class of relations.

The strong sense of rectitude which animates the Englishman is conspicuous in his love of what he calls *fair play*, which he carries even into those coarse amusements, boxing, cock-fighting, dog-fighting, &c., a love of which (now fast declining) forms one of the less amiable traits of the national character. His benevolence shines in the liberality of the legal provision for the poor, and in the numberless charitable institutions of all kinds which are supported in the country, as well as in the readiness which the nation has always displayed to hold out a hand of succor to distress in other quarters of the world. Cleanliness of person and household, and a love of comfort both in food and in domestic accommodation, distinguish the people at large. In all personal and domestic circumstances, the substantial is kept strongly in view, even while the ostensible object is ornament. The aristocratic institutions of the country have mixed, with the sturdy independence of the English character, a considerable reverence for external and accidental distinctions, and created a disposition, pervading almost all classes, to hold forth appearances rather above than below their means. For the same reason, as well as that abstract truths are not readily apprehended by the English intellect, there is a strong and general disposition to cling to ancient practices and forms in both government and law. The rural tenantry and the tradesmen of the smaller towns are generally subservient to the landed classes; and it is chiefly in large towns that new political dogmas find any warm advocacy.

Horse-racing and field-sports are the chief amusements of the nobility and gentry, and are practised upon a scale so extensive, and with apparatus so perfect in all its parts, including a breed of horses of the highest excellence, that they would probably

be considered by a foreigner as among the most remarkable features of English life. Among the upper and middle classes generally, the pleasures of the table are much, perhaps too much, cultivated; dinner, in particular, being generally followed by an abundance of the wines of Portugal, Madeira, and Germany. The lower classes also live, in general, on substantial fare; their favorite beverages are ale and porter; while quoits, cricket, and ninepins, may be described as their most common amusements.

CHAPTER IV.

PROGRESS OF POPULATION.—HEALTH AND LONGEVITY.

THE population of England in the time of the Plantagenet sovereigns is believed to have been little more than two millions. It has been estimated at 5,500,000 in 1696. The progress during the greater part of the eighteenth century was slow; the amount in 1760 is supposed to have been about 6,500,000. In 1801, for the first time, a regular census was taken; and this has been repeated once in ten years ever since, giving the following results:—

In 1801, there were	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	8,872,980
In 1811, “	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10,150,615
In 1821, “	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	11,978,875
In 1831, “	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	13,894,569
In 1841, “	nearly	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	16,000,000

Being nearly a doubling since the beginning of the present century. The rapid advance of the population is placed in a striking light, when we consider that, for the United Kingdom, it is nearly a thousand per day. Within the last ten years emigration has been proceeding on a scale of unprecedented magnitude; yet, even in the years during which it has been most active, it has not been sufficient to drain the country at one third of the rate at which its population has been increased by new births. This rapid increase of numbers clearly shows that, whatever partial evils there may be in the condition of the people, the country must, upon the whole, have enjoyed for forty years a high degree of prosperity; for it is quite insupposable, that with stationary resources so many new mouths could have been fed, unless there had been, what certainly there has *not* been, a large and general deterioration in the style of living. It is to be remarked, however, that an immigration to a great extent from Ireland has been going on for about twenty years, and that generally the Irish settlers continue in England to live in a style little superior to that which they followed in their own country.

The increased population has chiefly taken place in the manufacturing towns. It was calculated by Mr. McCulloch, in 1831, that nearly a third of the people live in towns of above ten thousand inhabitants. Most of the large cities have experienced a rapid advance of population within the last twenty years. These circumstances serve to show that it is the development of the manufacturing, and not of the agricultural energies of the country, which has mainly tended to increase the population. In 1831, it was ascertained that the total number of persons above twenty years of age engaged in any kind of business or professional employment, was three millions three hundred and ninety-four thousand six hundred and ninety. Of these, one million seventy-five thousand nine hundred and twelve were engaged in agriculture; one million three hundred and twenty-seven thousand seven hundred and twenty-seven in trade and manufactures; and nine hundred and ninety-one thousand and fifty-one in other pursuits. Of the last number, one hundred and eighty-five thousand one hundred and eighty-seven were capitalists, bankers, and professional and other educated men. In this part of the account we also find the army and navy and male servants. “It may thus be seen,” says an intelligent writer, “how very small is the

number of persons arrived at maturity, who are not employed in some one or other of the occupations whereby the sum of the national wealth or convenience is advanced."

With regard to the rate of mortality in England, no certain conclusions were in the hands of the public till the commencement of a general registry of births, marriages, and deaths, in 1836-7. In the first year of the operation of this system, the burials were three hundred and thirty-five thousand nine hundred and fifty-six, which, if we suppose the population to have then been fifteen millions and one half, would give one in forty-six per annum as the rate of mortality for the whole country, being considerably more than previous imperfect calculations had made it. There are considerable local variations in the rate of mortality, in accordance with peculiar circumstances. In the last half of the year 1837, the deaths out of three millions five hundred and fifty-three thousand one hundred and sixty-one persons, living in large cities, were forty-seven thousand nine hundred and fifty-three; and out of three millions five hundred thousand seven hundred and fifty-one persons, living chiefly in rural situations, only thirty-four thousand and seventy-four, or as nearly thirty-four to forty-seven. For this so much greater mortality in cities, we must look, first, to that custom which prevails of retiring in old age and sickness from country to town, and, secondly, to the filth, deficient ventilation, destitution, and vicious habits of life, which prevail in large towns. It is remarkable that London is healthier than most of the other large towns. The proportion who died at seventy out of one thousand persons was, in London, one hundred and four; but in Birmingham it was eighty-one, in Leeds seventy-nine, and in Liverpool and Manchester only sixty-three.

Out of one thousand deaths in the counties of Dorset, Devon, and Wilts, and in Wales, one hundred and eighty are of children under one year; but in Leeds and its neighborhood, in the mining districts of Staffordshire and Shropshire, and in the fenny lowlands of Lincoln, Cambridge, and Huntingdonshire, the number was two hundred and seventy, giving token of a great local discrepancy in the sanitory condition of the English population. After deducting the diseases of infancy, the most fatal maladies in England are consumption, fever, and dysentery. One eighth of the whole deaths, subject to the above deduction, are ascribed to the first of these diseases.

CHAPTER V.

REMARKABLE NATURAL SCENERY.—NATURAL CURIOSITIES.

THE natural scenery of England is generally of a pleasing, rather than a grand or picturesque character; yet there are some portions of the country which are considered attractive on account of their romantic beauty. We shall notice the chief of these.

The southwest part of the county of Cumberland, and the northwest part of Westmoreland, comprehend a range of lofty mountains—Skiddaw, Saddleback, Helvellyn, and some others of scarcely less note—amid which lie the lakes for which this district of England has long been celebrated. The largest of these are Ullswater, Windermere, Thirlmere, Derwentwater, and Bassenthwaite; but some of less size, as Buttermere, Crummockwater, Loweswater, Leatheswater, Ennerdale, Wastwater, and Devoek lake, are scarcely less admired. The vales or passes among the hills likewise contain much beautiful scenery of a wild character, although perhaps only traversed by a brawling mountain rill.

The ascent of Skiddaw is long, but easy: a lady may ride to the top and down again without even dismounting. It is the fourth English mountain in height, being 3,022 feet above the sea, and 2,800 above the lake of Bassenthwaite, which lies close at its foot. In respect of view, it is inferior to several points of smaller height, owing to its position nearly on the outside of the mountain district, and the absence of crags and precipices on the mountain itself. The gradual opening of the vale of Keswick



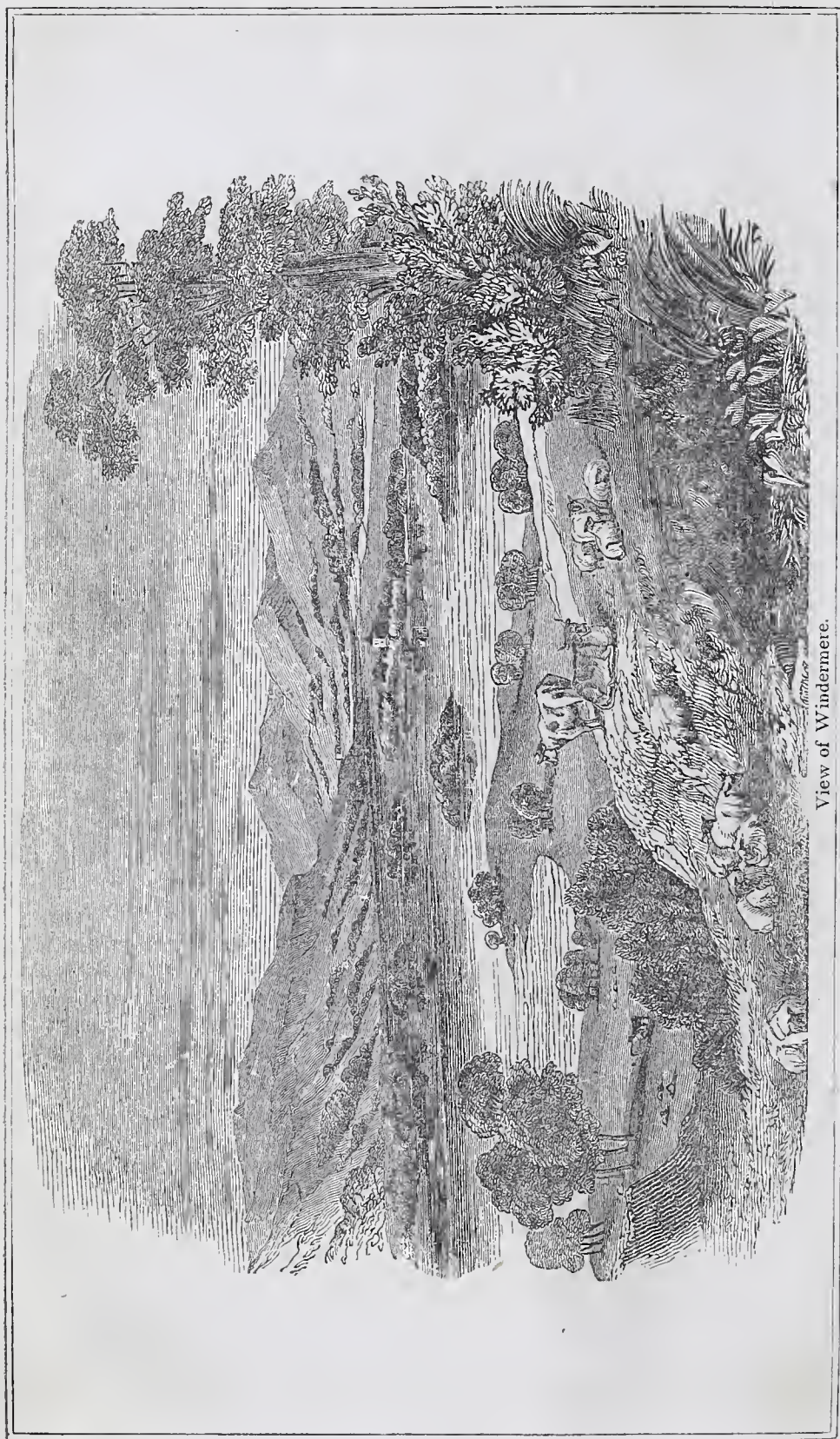
Skiddaw, from the southern end of Derwentwater.

as we ascend is, however, extremely beautiful; and the view is finer three quarters up than on the summit. To the north and east a large tract of low moor extends, and the northern distance also is tame and level. The top of Skiddaw is formed by a ridge, which runs north and south about half a mile, with no great difference of elevation. The highest point visible from Keswick and Derwentwater is not the summit, but the southern end of this ridge. An English traveller has given the following interesting description of a visit to this mountain:—

“I once witnessed, with three companions, an atmospheric phenomenon on this mountain, rare in England, but not unfamiliar, it is said, on the Hartz mountains in Germany, where its occurrence is supposed to have given rise to the superstitious legends of the giant of the Brocken. We set out late in a fine August night to reach the top of Skiddaw before sunrise. There was no moon, but the stars shone brilliantly; and as we rose up the steep hill-side overhanging Applethwaite, the lake and valley became slowly more and more distinct, in the cold, leaden hue of early twilight. As often happens after the finest nights, the floating vapors were suddenly condensed, and by the time we reached the table-land near the top, we were enveloped in a thick white mist, cold and uncomfortable, which confined our sight to a circle of a few yards diameter. Suddenly the white fog took a beautiful rose color, produced probably, like the last hues of evening, by the greater refractive power of the red rays, as the first beams of the sun shot above the horizon. This very soon vanished. One of the party was a short distance in advance, when a ray of sunshine darted through the mist, and he saw a figure walking ten or fifteen yards distant from his side. Taking it for granted that this was one of his companions, whom he had supposed at some distance, he vented some expression of disappointment, and, receiving no answer, repeated it again and again. Still there was no answer, though the figure kept steadily advancing with even steps. At last he stopped, half angry, and turned quite round to look at his silent companion, who did the same, but receded as he approached; and it became evident that the figure, apparently dimly seen through the mist, was his own shadow reflected on it. It was then surrounded by a bright halo, and as the light became stronger, grew less and less distinct. The rest of the party came up in time to witness this remarkable appearance with some modification. On reaching the ridge of the mountain, our figures, of superhuman size, appeared to be projected on the mist in the direction of the Solway.”

The tract of moor which lies between Skiddaw and Saddleback, bounded by High Pike and Carrock on the north, is called Skiddaw forest: it is traversed by the upper part of the Caldew river. In Bowscale Fell, as the northern part of the great mass of Saddleback is called, lies Bowscale Tarn, which sends a tributary to the Caldew. This tarn is the seat of a singular superstition, being supposed (or perhaps we should say, having been supposed) by the country people to be inhabited by two immortal fish. Mr. Wordsworth does not tell us in what fairy tale of transformation, or in what other way, the belief originated. Saddleback itself is a round-shouldered mountain of great extent, but no beauty of form, except as seen from the south, where the serrated precipices above Threlkeld rival those of Helvellyn. One of these is called Razor Edge, over which there is a magnificent view. Another noticeable point is the top of that wild ravine, down which the great waterspout, many years ago, descended upon Threlkeld, sweeping away part of the village. It is still a strange scene of ruin; and its effect is increased by a singular twist, caused by some convulsion, in the dip of the strata. The view down into Scales Tarn, deep-seated among crags, is awfully grand. In fact, Saddleback, though not ascended by one person for ten that go up Skiddaw, is better worth the ascent.

The ascent of Helvellyn may be conveniently performed from Patterdale. A lady, with a little management, taking the track up Glenridding to the lead mines, may ride within a quarter or half a mile of the summit; immediately under which, at a depth of six hundred and fifty feet, lies Red Tarn, enclosed within the sweep of two sharp ridges, called Striding Edge and Swirrel Edge, which project from the mountain. The former is, in some parts, as sharp as the roof of a house. One of the paths from Patterdale leads along it; but it requires some nerve and steadiness to traverse this giddy height, the top of which, in many places, is said scarcely to afford room to plant the foot. Swirrel Edge, the northern of the two, is crowned by the conical hill called Catchedicam. It was here that the remarkable instance of brute fidelity, which has been recorded both by Wordsworth and Scott, was shown in a dog, which



View of Windermere.

during three months watched beside the corpse of his master, who had fallen and perished on a snowy spring day, in attempting to cross from Patterdale to Wythburn.

“How nourished there for such long time,
He knows, who gave that love sublime,
And gave that strength of feeling, great
Above all human estimate.”

The view from the summit of Helvellyn is, with the exception of that from Scawfell, the finest panoramic mountain view in England.

The combination of Alpine wildness and grandeur, with the soft scenery which reposes in clothed slope and mirror-like lake at the bottoms of the hills, is what gives the Cumberland scenery its principal charm. Ullswater, which extends into Westmoreland, is thought to possess the greatest beauty: it is about nine miles in length, but nowhere more than one in breadth.

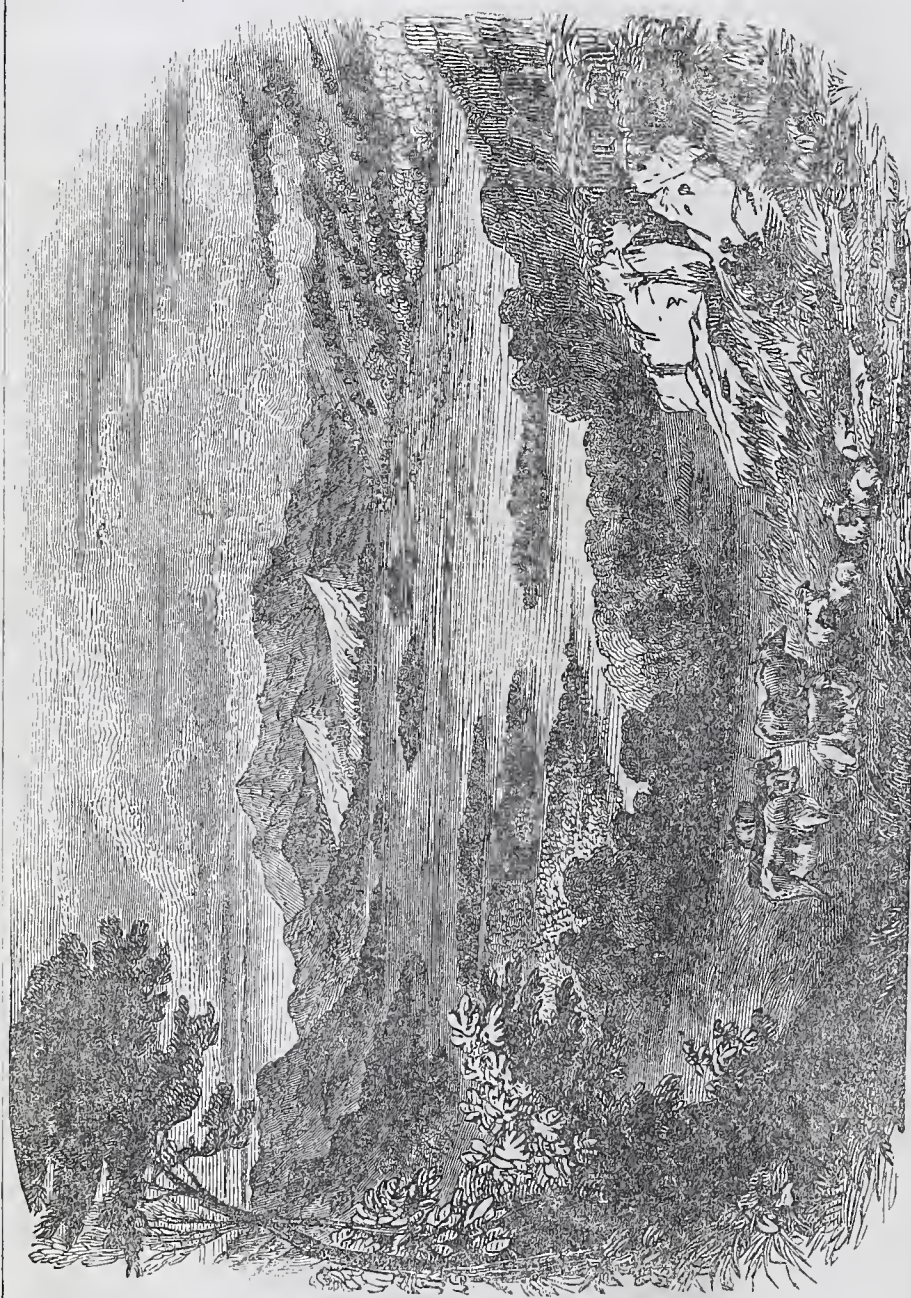
Windermere is a picturesque lake in Westmoreland (see engraving). The beautiful scenery which surrounds the placid waters of this lake has long been the theme of both poets and topographical writers. Wood, fell, and lake, are finely contrasted with ground more immediately devoted to the labors of the agriculturist. The disciples of “that quaint and cruel coxcomb,” Isaac Walton, may here pursue their piscatory labors with a certainty of success, as the lake abounds with the finest fish. In the summer season, the neighboring heights are frequently spotted with small tents belonging to parties of pleasure, who are constantly arriving from the metropolis; and when the railroads now in progress are carried to their destination, thousands of persons will be enabled to enjoy the sylvan scenery of Cumberland and Westmoreland, to whom these delightful counties must otherwise have been completely unknown.

Derwentwater is often termed Keswick lake, from its vicinity to the town of Keswick. This beautiful expanse of water is remarkable for the wildness and grandeur of the neighboring scenery (see engraving). It is nearly of an oval form, and the whole is seen at one glance, expanding within an amphitheatre of mountains broken into many fantastic shapes, peaked, splintered, impending, and sometimes pyramidal, opening by narrow valleys to the view of the rocks, which rise immediately beyond, and are again overlooked by others. The precipices seldom overhang the water, but are arranged at some distance, and the shores swell with woody eminences, or sink into green pastoral margins. Masses of wood also frequently appear among the cliffs, feathering them to their summits; and a white cottage sometimes peeps from out their skirts, seated on the smooth knoll of a pasture projecting into the lake, and looking so extremely picturesque, as to seem placed there purposely to adorn it. The lake in return faithfully reflects the whole picture, and so even and brilliantly pellucid is its surface, that it rather heightens than obscures the coloring. It measures three miles in length by one and a half in breadth, and is only inferior to Ullswater. Mrs. Radcliffe, the eminent novelist, describes it as having peculiar charms, both from beauty and wildness. The bosom of the lake is spotted by several small, but well-wooded islands.



Leatheswater.

Leatheswater is also a considerable and beautiful lake in the interior of Cumberland (see engraving, above). This lake is situated in the interior of a very sequestered district, bordering on Westmoreland. Its shores are naked and rocky, and

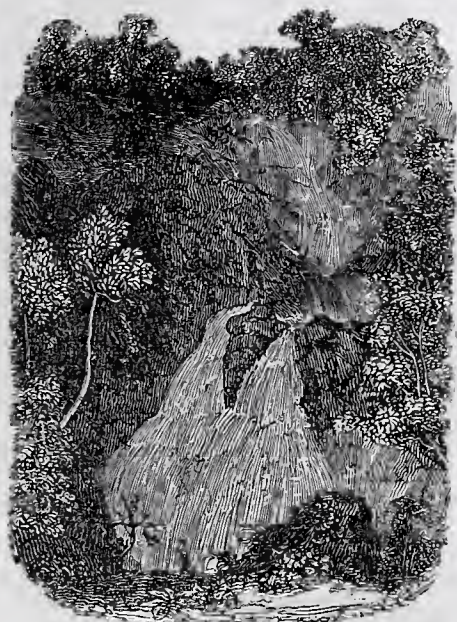


View of Derwentwater.

display a scene of desolation, which is much heightened by the appearance of immense craggy masses that seem to hang on the sides of Helvellyn, from whose steep sides they have apparently been severed, but have been arrested in their tremendous progress down its rugged sides, while others have reached the bottom, and are at rest in the silent lake. Near the middle, the lake is so contracted by its craggy boundaries, that a bridge of three arches has been thrown over it for the convenience of the neighboring inhabitants. Further on, the noise of waterfalls assails the ear on every side, which are seen tumbling from amazing heights in silvery threads. The north end is terminated by a pyramidal and towering rock.

Among the *passes*, that of Borrowdale is the most remarkable. It is a narrow chasm, opening from the centre of the amphitheatre which terminates the expanse of Derwentwater, and terminated by the vehement little stream of the same name. Near the entrance of the pass is a detached mountain, called Castle-Crag, with a peaceful village reposing at its foot; and opposite to Castle-Crag is the *Bowderstone*, a huge mass of rock, which has apparently fallen from the neighboring cliffs, and round whose base the road is made to wind. It is computed that this enormous boulder is not less than eighteen hundred tons in weight.

Cumberland is remarkable for possessing some of the finest cataracts and waterfalls in England; and to afford our readers some idea of the beauty of these, we give, in the beautiful cut accompanying this description, a picturesque sketch of Colruth falls, one of the most remarkable of them.



Colruth Falls.

The lake scenery of Cumberland has by its beauty attracted a great number of permanent residents, whose villas enter pleasingly into its landscapes, and among whom the present age has seen several eminent literary men—Southey, Wordsworth, &c. It also attracts an immense number of tourists from all parts of the kingdom.

The district usually called "The Lakes" may be said also to comprehend a small northern and nearly detached portion of Lancashire, where Windermere and Conistone-Water are sheets rivalling in extent and beauty those of Cumberland.

No county in England possesses a greater variety of scenery than Derbyshire, or presents more striking geographical contrasts, than its northern and southern portions. The latter is a beautiful fertile district, in no way distinguished from other midland counties, but the northern part abounds with hill and dale, and the scenery is always romantic and frequently even sublime. A chain of hills arises, which extends to the borders of Scotland. These hills are at first of small elevation, but being in their progress piled on one another, they form very elevated ground in the tract called

"the High Peak." The mountains of the peak, although inferior to those of Cumberland, constitute the loftiest and most considerable range in the midland regions of the kingdom. The highest points are Axe-edge, which is 2,100 feet above the level of Derby, and Kinder-scout, which is 1,000 feet higher than the level of Buxton. About 700 eminences and fifty rocky caverns, dells, and valleys, have been enumerated in the region of the peak; the most celebrated is the "Peak Cavern," sometimes called "Devil's cave," and more frequently "Auld Horney."

This is situated in Castleton dale; the dale is six miles long and nearly two miles broad, and is calculated to be one thousand feet below the level of the surrounding country. It has been much celebrated, not because it is in that respect superior to many other valleys in Derbyshire, but from the lovely contrasts it presents to the sterile, bleak, and desolate mountain tracts which surround it. The cavern itself is one of the most magnificent and extraordinary works of nature. It is almost impossible to conceive a scene more romantically beautiful, than the entrance to this cave. On each side, the huge gray rocks rise almost perpendicularly to the height of nearly three hundred feet, having on the left the rivulet which issues from the cavern, and foams along over crags and broken limestone. The mouth of the cave is formed by a vast canopy of rock, which assumes the form of a depressed arch, nearly regular in its structure, and which extends in width one hundred and twenty feet, is forty-two feet in height, and above ninety feet in receding depth. This gloomy recess is inhabited by some poor people, who subsist by making packthread, and by selling candles, and officiating as guides to visitors. Their rude huts and twine-making machines produce a singular effect, in combination with the natural features of the scene. After penetrating about thirty yards into this recess, the roof becomes lower, and a gentle descent conducts by a detached rock to the immediate entrance to the interior, which is closed by a door kept locked by the guides. At this point the light of day, which had gradually softened into the obscurity of twilight, totally disappears, and torches are employed to illuminate the further progress through the darkness of the cavern. The passage then becomes low and confined, and the visitor is obliged to proceed twenty or thirty yards in a stooping posture, when he comes to another spacious opening, whence a path conducts to the margin of a small lake, called "First water;" this lake is about fourteen yards long, and in depth three or four feet: upon it is a small boat filled with straw, on which the visitor lies, and is thus conveyed into the interior of the cavern under a massive arch of rock, which is about five yards through, and in one place descends to within eighteen or twenty inches of the water. Beyond the lake a spacious vacuity of two hundred and twenty feet in length, two hundred feet broad, and in some parts one hundred and twenty high, opens in the bosom of the rocks; but the absence of light precludes the spectator from seeing either the sides or the roof of this great cavern.

It is traversed by a path consisting of steps cut in the sand, conducting from the first to the "Second water." Through this, visitors are generally conveyed upon the backs of the guides. Near the termination of this passage, before arriving at the water, there is a projecting pile of rocks, popularly called "Roger Rain's house," from the incessant fall of water through the crevices in the rocks. A little beyond this spot is the entrance of another hollow, called the "Chancel." At this point the rocks appear broken and dislocated, and the sides and prominent parts of the cavity are incrustated with large masses of stalactite. In the "Chancel," the stranger is much surprised and impressed by hearing the death-like stillness of the place suddenly interrupted by a burst of vocal music, from the upper regions of the cavern. The tones are wild and discordant, but, heard in such a place, and under such circumstances, produce a powerful impression. At the conclusion of the performance, the singers display their torches, and eight or ten women and children—the inhabitants of the huts at the entrance—appear ranged on a hollow of the rock, about fifty or sixty feet from the ground. From the "Chancel" the path leads onward to the "Devil's Cellar," and thence a gradual and somewhat rapid ascent of about one hundred and fifty feet conducts to a spot called the "Halfway House." Further on, the way proceeds between three natural arches, to another vast cavity, which is denominated "Great Tom of Lincoln," from its resemblance to the form of a bell. A very pleasing effect is produced, when this place is illuminated by a strong light. The arrangement of the rocks, the spiracles of the roof, and the flowing stream, unite to form a scene of no common interest: the distance from this spot to the termination of the entire hollow is not considerable. The vault gradually descends, the passage contracts,

Entrance to the Peak Cavern.



and at last nearly closes, leaving only sufficient room for the passage of the water, which appears to have a communication with the distant mines of the Peak forest. The entire length of this wonderful cavern is seven hundred and fifty yards, and its depth two hundred and seven yards. It is wholly formed of limestone strata, which abound in marine exuviae, and occasionally exhibit an intermixture of chert. Some communications with other fissures open from different parts of the cavern, but none of them are comparable to it in extent and appearance. In general, the access to the cavern is easy, but in very wet weather it can not be explored, as it is then nearly filled with water, which rises to a considerable height even at the entrance. In the inner part of the cavern a singular effect is produced by the explosion of a small quantity of gunpowder, when inserted in a crevice of the rock. The report seems to roll along the roof and sides, like a heavy and continuous peal of thunder.

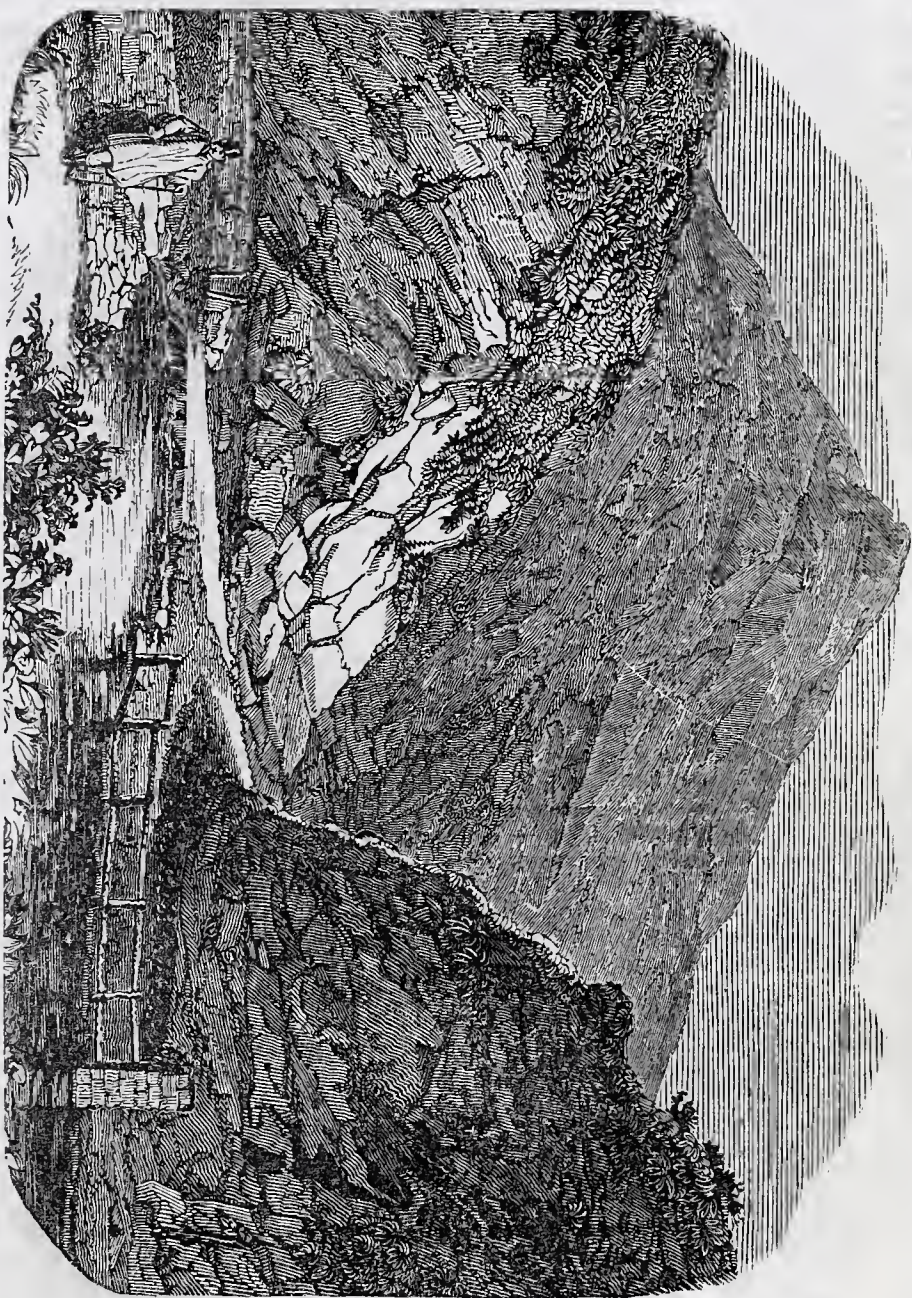
The scenery adjacent to the neighboring town of Buxton is also much celebrated. One of the most noted objects is "Elden's Hole," a perpendicular opening, down which a line has been dropped to the extent of two thousand six hundred and fifty-two feet, without finding the bottom. "Poole's Hole" is a cave remarkable for its stalactites. A succession of beautiful valleys, situated amid rugged mountains, leads to the romantic one of "Matlock," where the banks of the Derwent are bordered by extensive woods, interspersed with the boldest and most varied forms of rock.

Of the varied scenery for which Derbyshire is so much celebrated, its numerous dales form the most beautiful and interesting portion. The first of the number, in size as well as beauty, is the far-famed and romantic Dove-dale, so called from the river Dove, which pours its waters through it. On entering this enchanting spot, the sudden change of scenery, from that of the surrounding country, is powerfully striking. The brown heath, or richly-cultivated meadow, is exchanged for rocks abrupt and vast, which rise on each side, their gray sides harmonized by mosses, lichens, and yew-trees, and their tops sprinkled with mountain-ash. The hills that enclose this narrow dell are very precipitous, and bear on their sides fragments of rock that, in the distance, look like the remains of ruined castles. After proceeding a little way, a deep and narrow valley appears, into the recesses of which the eye is prevented from penetrating, by the winding course it pursues, and by the shutting in of its precipices, which fold into each other and preclude all distant view. A further progress exhibits an increase of majesty and rudeness in the scene. The objects which, at a distance, appeared to have been ruins, are found to be rude pyramids of rock, and grand isolated masses, ornamented with ivy, rising in the middle of the vale. The rocks which enclose the dale, forcing their scattered and uncovered heads into the clouds, overhang the narrow path that winds through its dark recesses, and, frowning in craggy grandeur, and shaggy with the dark foliage that grows out of the chinks and clings to the asperities of the rocks, form a scene unrivalled in romantic effect. The mountain, which rises in the background of the view given on page 53, is known by the name of Thorp Cloud. On proceeding about a mile into the vale, fantastic forms and uncouth combinations are exhibited, in vast detached mural masses, while the sides of the dell are perforated by many small natural caverns which are difficult of access.

The length of Dove-dale is nearly three miles, and it is in no part more than a quarter of a mile wide, while in some places it almost closes, scarcely leaving room for the passage of its narrow river. On the right, or Derbyshire side of the dale, the rocks are more bare of vegetation than on the opposite, or Staffordshire side, where they are thickly covered with a fine hanging wood of various trees and odoriferous shrubs and plants. The frequent changes in the motion and appearance of the transparent Dove, which is interspersed with small islands and little waterfalls, contribute to diversify the scenery of this charming spot; while the rugged, dissimilar, and frequently grotesque and fanciful appearance of the rocks, gives to it that peculiar character by which it is distinguished from every other in the kingdom. The view on page 55 is of a very remarkable scene of this description, and can not fail to be immediately recognised by every one who has had the pleasure of visiting the spot.

The Dove has long been famous among anglers. Old Izaak Walton, his disciple Cotton, and Sir Humphrey Davy, have all celebrated it, not only for the sport it afforded them, but for its natural charms.

We can not dismiss a notice of this very interesting spot, without mentioning a peculiarly graceful custom which still lingers in its neighborhood—one of those poetical usages of the olden time which have almost departed from the country, and



Entrance to Dove-Dale.

the loss of which we would regret, did we not consider it a necessary result of the risen standard in the every-day enjoyments of the people, which, by affording many objects to interest the mind that did not formerly exist, and by diminishing the distance between the pleasures of ordinary and festival days, weakens the stimulus to their observance. The custom which gave occasion to this remark is thus described by Rhodes in his "Peak Scenery":—

"An ancient custom still prevails in the village of Tissington, to which, indeed, it appears to be confined, for I have not met with anything of a similar description in any other part of Derbyshire. It is denominated "Well-flowering," and holy Thursday is devoted to the rites and ceremonies of this elegant custom. This day is regarded as a festival, and all the wells in the place, five in number, are decorated with wreaths and garlands of newly-gathered flowers, disposed in various devices. Sometimes boards are used, which are cut for the figure intended to be represented, and covered with moist clay, into which the stems of the flowers are inserted to preserve their freshness; and they are so arranged as to form a beautiful mosaic work, often tasteful in design, and vivid in coloring. The boards thus adorned are so placed in the spring that the water appears to issue from among beds of flowers. On this occasion the villagers put on their best attire, and open their houses to their friends. There is a service at the church, where a sermon is preached; afterward a procession takes place, and the wells are visited in succession; the psalms for the day, the epistle, and the gospel, are read, one at each well, and the whole concludes with a hymn, which is sung by the church singers, accompanied by a band of music. After this the people separate, and the remainder of the day is spent in rural sports and holiday pastimes."

CHAPTER VI.

THE ISLE OF WIGHT.

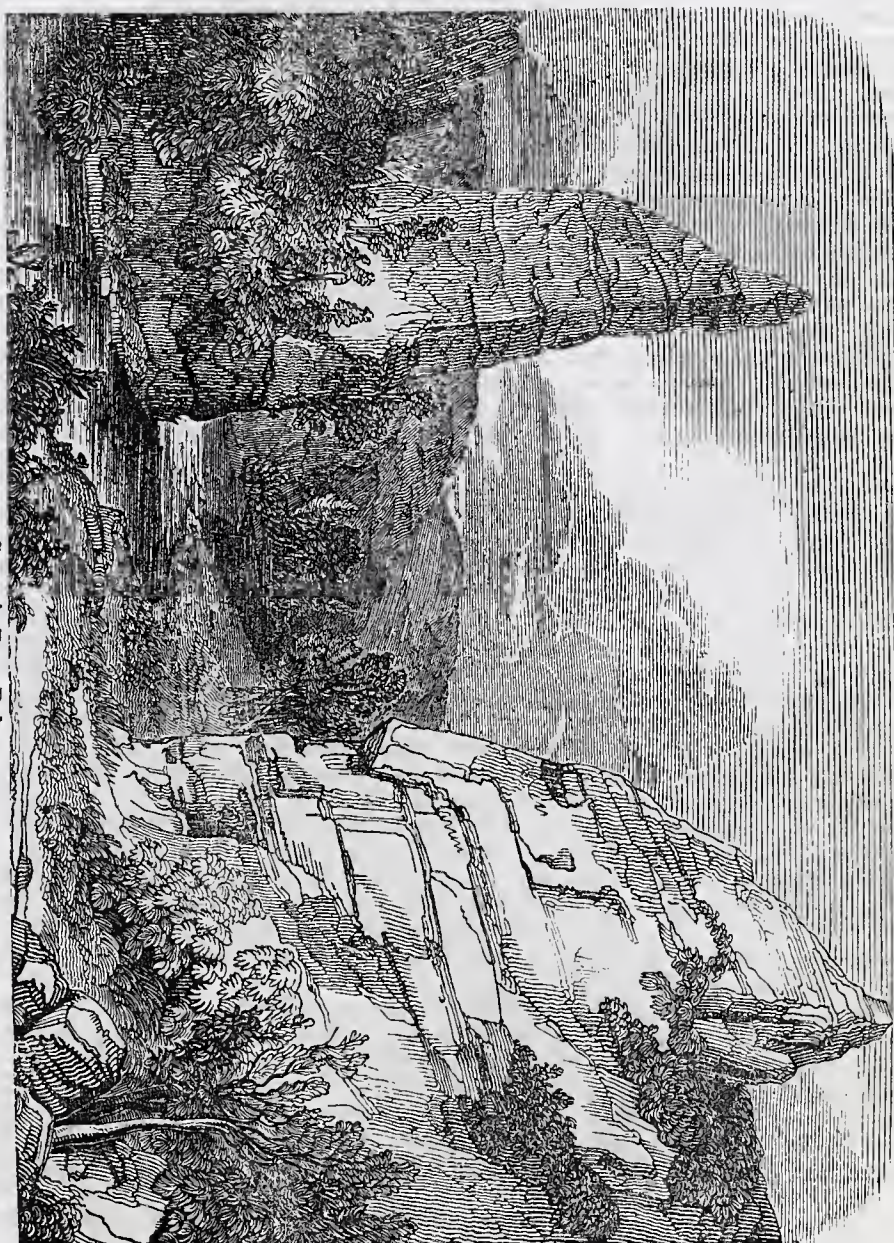
It has been said in praise of the island of Great Britain, that it contains within itself, on a small scale, specimens of all the beauties and variety of scenery of the whole of Europe. In a similar manner we may almost say that the Isle of Wight contains within a narrow compass all the most pleasing and picturesque features of Great Britain. No person with any eye or feeling for the beauties of nature, ever visited this fair isle without delight; and we trust we shall render no unacceptable service by drawing our readers' attention to it.

Though the largest island in the British channel, the Isle of Wight is only twenty-four miles in its greatest length, that is, from east to west, or from the Needles to Foreland farm, and about twelve in its greatest breadth, or from Cowes castle to Rocken End. Its form is that of an irregular ellipsis, and it has been compared to the shape of a urbot. It contracts at its two extremities, and is very narrow toward the west. The entire circumference is generally set down at about sixty miles, and the island contains from 120,000 to 130,000 acres of land, of which a great portion is very productive.

The natural division of the island is very clearly marked; a central chain of hills and downs cuts it into two nearly equal parts, the one being north and the other south. The southern part, which is farther from the Hampshire coast, and much the more picturesque, bold, and secluded of the two, is commonly called the "back of the island."

A very favorable character has been generally given of the islanders. M. Simond, in the course of his tour at the back of the island, says: "The meanest of their cottages, and those inhabited by the poorer class, were adorned with roses, jessamines, and honeysuckles, and often large myrtles, which, on this southern coast, bear the winter out of doors. There were vines everywhere against their houses, and often fig-trees. We thought the women remarkably good-looking. Children and grown people took off their hats, or gave us a nod, as we passed along."

Scene in Dove-Cliff.



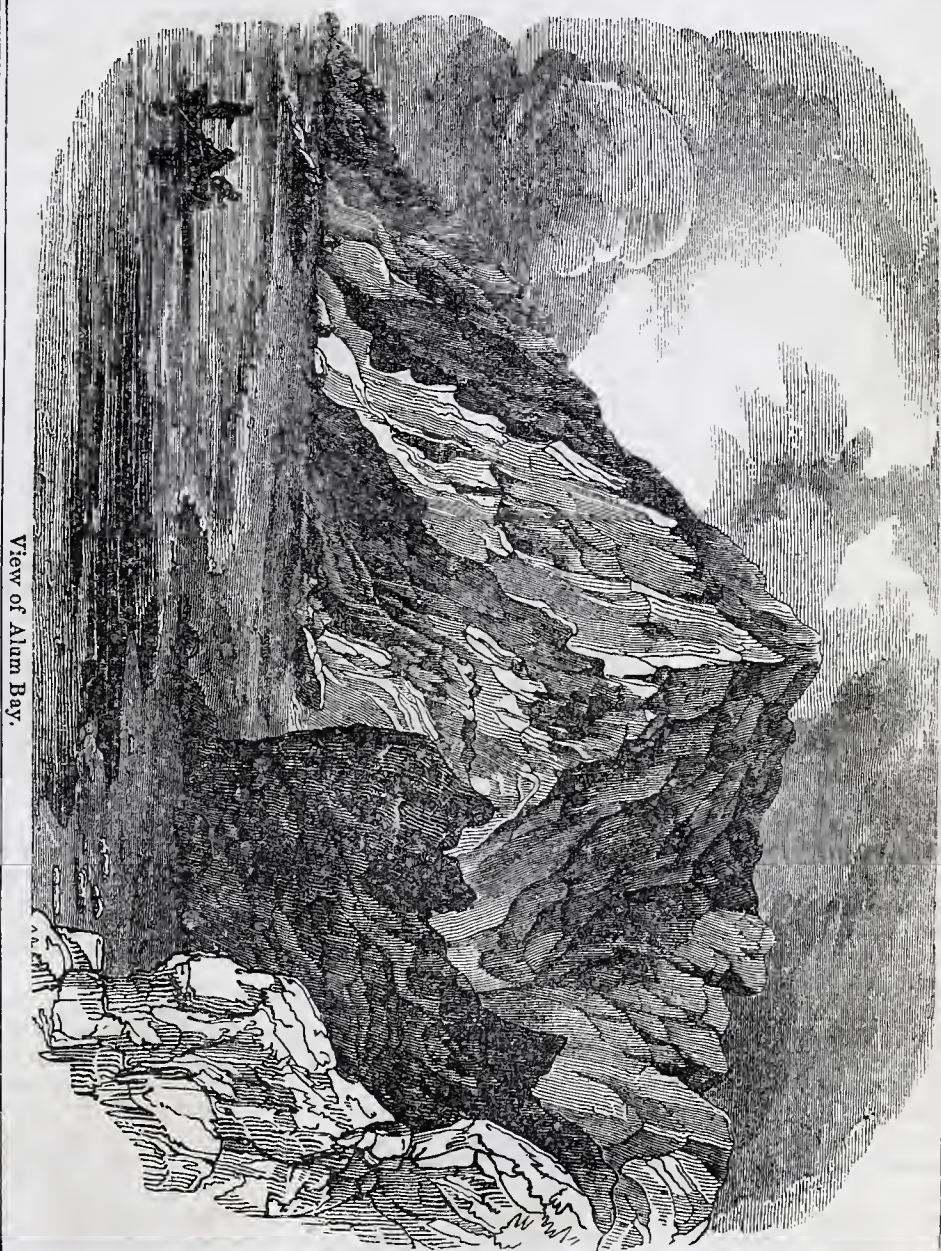
The most striking and distinctive features of the Isle of Wight exist on its coasts, which present a continual succession of natural phenomena, and grand or beautiful scenery. We will attempt to describe a few of the scenes to be met with in its brief circumnavigation.

We will begin with the picturesque maritime town of Cowes, where we landed when we visited the island, and thence proceed along the western coasts to the Needles and the back of the island. This pretty town, surrounded by gentlemen's seats and elegant cottages, is situated at the mouth of the Medina, standing partly on the eastern and partly on the western bank of that river. A port and roadstead, generally crowded with shipping, offer animated seaward views; and on the land side there is a variety of beautiful walks through an undulating country, where trees are everywhere mixed with the habitations of men. Old Cowes castle is a small fortress on the seashore, offering no very picturesque features, but East Cowes castle, and Norris castle, in the neighborhood, though both *modern* Gothic structures, are fine objects in the scenery, and beautifully situated.

On leaving West Cowes, we sailed under the pleasant West cliff, and doubling a little promontory, came into Gurnard's bay, where a small stream, called the Rue, falls into the Solent channel. Thence, crossing Thorness bay, we reached Newtown, which is curiously situated on a deep and irregular inlet or creek of the Solent, which admits vessels of considerable burden. Though formerly a market-town of some consequence, and though, until very recently, it sent two members to parliament, Newtown is but a small village, with fourteen or fifteen cottages, and a population of about seventy persons. The only trade it now has, is derived from some salterns, or salt pans. In the rear of the village are the picturesque remains of an old church, which are almost entirely concealed by luxuriant ivy. From Newtown bay we sailed slowly along the coast to the estuary of the river Yar, on the eastern bank of which stands the town of Yarmouth. During this short voyage from Cowes, the tourist catches fine glimpses of the interior scenery of the island, backed by hills and downs; but the coast itself, though prettily sprinkled with small hamlets and fishermen's huts, and covered in many places with green grass, or trees, to the water's edge, yet offers none of those features of sublimity which occur a little beyond Yarmouth. This town, the most important on the western end of the island, is very advantageously situated, and has a constant intercourse, by means of steam-boats and sailing-vessels, with Lymington on the main, from which it is distant no more than four miles: its port or roadstead is excellent. The population of Yarmouth, however, is but small, not much exceeding 600 persons. The river Yar, which has a fine appearance at high water, rises close to Freshwater gate, on the opposite side of the island, and within a few yards of the sea, which, in stormy weather, has been seen to break over the narrow ridge of separation, and mingle its salt waves with the fresh waters of the river-head. The Yar almost insulates the western extremity of the island from the rest of the Wight; and, were it desirable, the ocean could be easily made to flow through its bed, from the south to the Solvent strait at the north. To this end, nothing would be required but to cut through the very narrow isthmus at Freshwater gate. The river Yar is navigable up to Freshwater mills, and affords a pleasant aquatic excursion.

On leaving Yarmouth, we almost immediately reached Sconce Point, where Hurst castle, standing at the end of a projection from the Hampshire coast, presents itself in a picturesque manner, and apparently almost within reach. At the turning of Sconce Point into Colwell bay, the peculiarities of the coast begin to appear. The cliffs become lofty and vertical, exposing their different strata, the lowest of which is of white sand, and more than thirty feet thick. This continues along Totland bay to the grand eminence of Headon hill, which rises 400 feet above the level of the sea, which is here remarkably clear, with a fine rocky bottom. On turning this point, the voyager finds himself in a remarkable bay, at the southern side of which the Needles show their fantastic shapes, their rugged, narrow ridges, in summer-time, being generally covered with sea-fowl.

Alum bay, a section of which is correctly represented in our engraving, presents, indeed, one of the most striking scenes on this curious coast. On one side it is bounded by lofty precipices of chalk, of a pearly color, broken and indented; on the other by cliffs, strangely but beautifully variegated with different colors, arising from the strata of red and yellow ochres, fuller's earth, black flints, and sands, both gray and snowy white. The white sand is valuable for the manufacture of glass



View of Alum Bay.

and chinaware, and is exported in considerable quantities. Of the colored sands, which are uncommonly bright and pretty, the people of the island make little chimney-piece ornaments, by putting them into vials, and so arranging and contrasting the different tints as to form fantastic designs. Alum and copperas-stones are also picked up on the shores of the bay, and exported in small quantities.

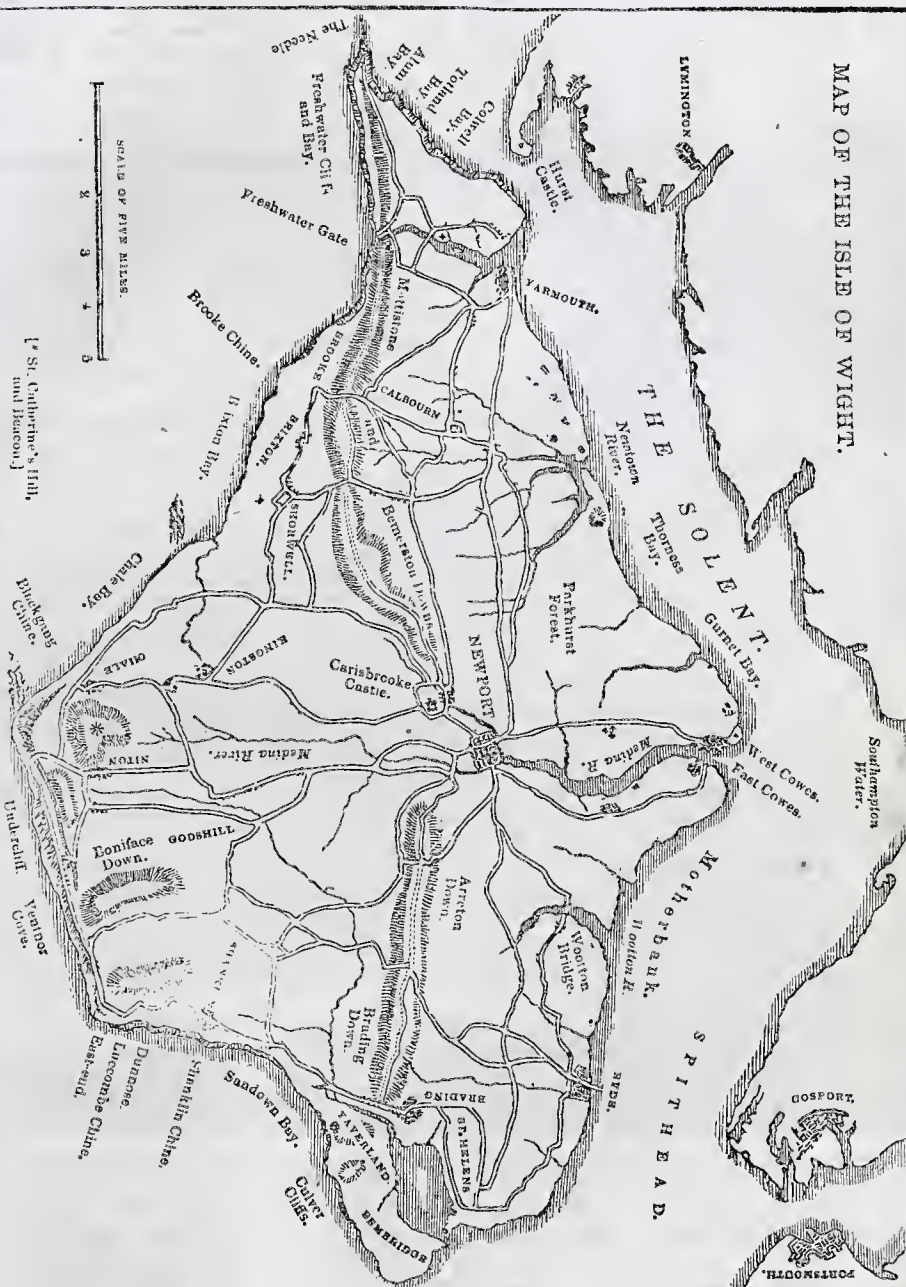
As the tourist changes his position in Alum bay, the Needle rocks, which are five in number, though only three of them now stand holdly out of the water, vary their irregular forms to the eye in a most singular manner. From some points they appear as if united in one broad, rugged mass; from others they are seen detached, and looking like old fortresses which had battered each other to pieces, or fallen into one common ruin, under the weight of time and the violence of tempests. It would require the pencil instead of the pen, and many successive views, to give a notion of the variety of these combinations; but the natural causes which have produced these phenomena, admit of an easy and brief explanation.

A very sharp point of land forms the western end of the Isle of Wight. This has been broken by the sea, and divided into several large columnar rocks, that now seem to have risen out of the waters. These rocks, which are famous under the name of "The Needles," stand on a line with the extremity of the island, of which they were formerly a part. They are white, with a black base, and curiously streaked with black dots, from the alternate strata of flints. A traveller has remarked, that, at a distance, they look more like thimbles than needles. The only one of them to which the name of needle was at all applicable, was of a cylindrical shape, thin, and above 100 feet high, measuring from low-water mark; and this one fell down and almost entirely disappeared, about sixty years ago, its base having been worn through by the continual action of the waves and tides. Seamen used to call it the "pillar of Lot's wife." It was the farthest from the island; its base, consisting mostly of flint, is still visible, and in stormy weather it forms a dangerous reef. From the chalky nature of this remarkable group of rocks, and of the coast of the island from which they have been detached, continual changes are taking place in their form and disposition. In some places the sea has eaten them through, and formed large and irregular archways; in others it has so washed away their sides that they look rather like walls than solid rocks; while deep caverns have been formed in the chalky cliffs of the island, which fall in from time to time, and gradually diminish the island in that direction. At no distant period, the present Needles or rocks will have wholly disappeared; but new ones will be formed out of the western end or projecting point of the Isle of Wight, which, already extremely narrow, will be insulated like the Needles, when the sea, at work on both sides, shall have quite broken through the thin partition. While standing on this perilous part of the island, in 1811, M. Simond says: "We observed, with some terror, a long crack along the margin of the cliff, cutting off a slice of the downs (sheep were quietly feeding upon it) of full one acre. This slice has settled down already two or three feet, and must soon fall. The next heavy rain, or frost, or high wind, may detach it, and down it slips, 660 feet perpendicular! We had landed yesterday on the flinty beach precisely under this cliff, twice as high as those of Dover, and more exposed to an open sea."

The Needles lighthouse is built on the highest point of this western part of the island, at an elevation of 715 feet above the level of the sea. The building is a low, truncated cone, but its light shines afar like a brilliant star, being distinctly seen at sea at the distance of eleven leagues. It is cited as a proof of the healthiness of this airy height, that an old couple who lived in the lighthouse, and sat up by turns all night to attend to the lamps, were never, during the long term of nineteen years, hindered by sickness from attending to their duties a single night. It is observed that at the Needles the tide rises only eight feet, and at the whole back part of the island no more than nine, while at Cowes, on the other side, it rises fifteen feet.

On turning the Needles and the most westerly point of the Isle of Wight, into Scratchell's bay, the rough sublimity of the cliffs continues, and there commences a series of caves that end at Freshwater gate. An indentation, much smaller than Alum bay, immediately adjacent to this terminating promontory on the south side, is known by the name of Scratchell's bay. It is represented in our engraving to the right, as seen, along with the other objects to the west of it, from the front of the cave, the magnificent arch of which, one hundred and fifty feet in height, forms the foreground of the picture. This is one of numerous caves which pierce the

MAP OF THE ISLE OF WIGHT.



SCALE OF PIVS ALICES

[* St. Catherine's Hill,
and Beacon.]

Freshwater cliffs, and vary the extraordinary aspect of that vast wall of whiteness marked with parallel inclined lines of black, "only to be compared," to use the words of Sir Henry Englefield, "to a ruled sheet of paper." In many parts these cliffs are four hundred feet in height—at one place, called Main beach, their elevation is not less than six hundred feet. Here, however, the precipice is not quite perpendicular. The singular-looking rocks that are seen rising out of the water beyond the promontory are the celebrated Needles, a name, however, which they seem to have derived chiefly from one of their number, much taller than any of those now remaining, which has long disappeared. It fell suddenly, in the year 1764. Sir Richard Worsey, in his "History of the Isle of Wight," states that it was about 120 feet in height above low-water mark, and much more like a needle in shape than any of those that now remain.

Scratchell's bay, and all the neighboring cliffs, are frequented by vast swarms of sea-fowls, which the country people are in the habit of catching by the hazardous method, practised also in the Shetland and the Feroe islands, of being swung over the brow of the rock by a rope made fast in the earth above. Worsey enumerates puffins, razorbills, willocks, gulls, cormorants, Cornish choughs, daws, starlings, and wild pigeons, as among the species that frequent the rocks, and lodge in the shelving strata. Some remain constantly here; others come only to lay their eggs. "They sit," says the writer just quoted, "in thick rows, and discover themselves by their motions, though not individually visible." From these retreats they are driven or frightened away by the stick of the adventurous bird-catcher.

"At the report of a gun," says a tourist, "they scream, fly out, and almost darken the sky with their countless wings. At times flights of these birds skim the air in endless circles, and wheel round the head of the tourist on wings that seem without motion, and with a cry like a horse-laugh. One or two species remain all the year round, but most of them are migratory, coming in May, when they lay their eggs in the rocks, and taking their departure about the middle of August, after which they are seen no more till the next breeding season. During their stay they are not left undisturbed in their seemingly inaccessible retreats. Unable to get at them from below by climbing, the islanders reach them from above by descending the perpendicular cliffs in the same perilous manner as is practised by the Norwegians and the hardy natives of the Feroe island. They drive a large stake or iron bar into the top of the cliff; to this stake or bar they fasten a strong rope, at the other end of which there is a stick put crosswise for the adventurer to sit upon, or support himself by; and with this simple apparatus he lets himself down the front of the horrid precipice. If his object is to secure eggs, he halloos as he descends, to scare the birds away; but when he wishes to obtain feathers and the birds themselves, he goes to work in silence, and either catches them in their nests, or knocks them down with a stick as they fly out of their holes. The soft feathers of the birds are of value, and find a ready market with the upholsterers; their flesh, which is rank and fishy, is bought by the fishermen, who cut it up and use it for their crab-pots and other baits. Some of the eggs are said to be very good eating." Worsey says that in his time a dozen birds generally yielded one pound weight of soft feathers, which were sold for eightpence sterling the pound.

Here, too, grows samphire, in fine green tufts; and those who gather it, "precious trade," are let down by a rope from above, in the same manner as the fowlers. The pebbles below, over which the sea rolls, are black and shiny, being mainly flints loosened or dissolved from their beds in the chalk, and broken and polished by the friction of ages, produced by the never-resting tides and waves. The water at the foot of the cliffs is so clear, that one can see, many fathoms deep, to the bottom of it.

Scratchell's bay is often visited by tourists. The most magnificent view down into it, Sir Henry Englefield says, is obtained by descending a very steep grassy slope, to the edge of one of the cliffs in the neighborhood, and from this point the whole Needles may be seen; but he advises strangers not to attempt to find their way down without taking a guide along with them. In his work entitled, "A Description of the Isle of Wight" (London, 1816), Sir Henry has given various views of the scenery in the neighborhood of this spot. "Nothing can be more interesting," he remarks, "particularly to those who take pleasure in aquatic excursions, than to sail between and round the Needles. The wonderfully-covered cliffs of Alum bay, the lofty and towering chalk precipices of Scratchell's bay, of the most dazzling whiteness and the most elegant forms, the magnitude and singularity of the spiry, insulated masses,



Scratchell's Bay, and the Needles.

which seem at every instant to be shifting their situations, and give a mazy perplexity to the place, the screaming noise of the aquatic birds, the agitation of the sea, and the rapidity of the tide, occasioning not unfrequently a slight degree of danger, all these circumstances combine to raise in the mind unusual emotions, and to give to the scene a character highly singular, and even romantic."

We go now to the back of the island. Rowing under Freshwater cliffs, the tourist may visit Neptune's caves, the larger of which is two hundred feet deep—the bay of Watcomb, where the scenery is as bold and almost as curious as at Alum bay—and then Freshwater cave, which is about one hundred and twenty feet in depth, and taken altogether, the most romantic of these caverns. A rude fantastic arch, about thirty feet high, and of the same width, and two lateral arches of smaller dimension, separated from each other by a thin rocky column, give admittance to this wild and deep recess. Looking seaward, from the interior of the cave, the view is at once curious and beautiful. Through the main arch a glorious expanse of ocean presents itself; and looking through the side arches, which are of an arrow-head shape at top, you see part of the rocky coast of the Wight as through the Gothic windows of a cathedral.

A little farther on, a detached arched rock stands boldly out into Freshwater bay, its rough edges generally crowded with screaming wild sea-fowl. It is now nearly six hundred feet from the cliffs of the island, of which it once formed a solid part. In the centre of this bay is a creek, called Freshwater gate, with a huge columnar rock rising out of the sea immediately before its mouth. It is just behind this creek that the Yar rises, which river running due north, right across this end of the island, falls into the Solent strait at Yarmouth. Near to this point is Compton bay, where there is a delightful walk on a broad margin of silvery sand. Passing the pretty village of Brook, and a curious group of small rocks, called the Bull rocks, which are frequently dangerous to seamen, we shoot into Brixton bay. Here the cliffs become much lower, and are cut and rent toward the sea in an extraordinary manner. These chasms, which, in the language of the islanders, are called *chines*, form one of the most characteristic features of the coast. A *chine* is a place where the ridge of the cliffs is cut through by the action of water running seaward from the interior of the island, or by other means, and where a ravine is formed opening to the shore. Every one of the *chines* has a stream of water running through it. In Brixton bay there are above a dozen of them; but they are inferior in magnitude and picturesque beauty to some we are fast approaching. Among them, however, Compton *chine* and Brooke *chine* are worth visiting.

After leaving Brixton bay and passing Atherfield point, and another group of rocks that lies off it, the voyager will find himself in Chale bay, where freestone cliffs and of a tremendous height, impend over the shore. Whether seen by sea or land, the views here are sublime. On St. Catherine's hill, the most elevated point of the whole island, "there is a stern round tower of other days," which has a happy effect in the landscape, and is not uninteresting in its history. It was built in the year 1323, by Walter, then lord of the neighboring manor of Godyton, who assigned certain rents to a chanting priest to sing mass in it, and also to provide light in the tower (which was at once a chapel, a hermitage, and a pharos), for the safety of seamen in dark and stormy weather. At the reformation, the trifling revenues were sequestered or alienated—the poor monk ceased his mass, and the lights to shine across the deep, where rocks and shoals threatened destruction to the "night-faring skiff." On the latter point, however, one's regret may be the less, as it is asserted that, owing to its great elevation, the pharos is so frequently surrounded by mists as to render the best of modern lights of no avail there, when they are most wanted. By day, and in fine weather, however, the old tower still renders good service, being an excellent landmark. Mr. Pennant informs us, that it was thought of such importance in his time, that it was thoroughly and solidly repaired, and that, in clearing away the rubbish that had fallen in, the workmen discovered the form of the little chapel, and the floor of the little cell in which the pious priest used to sleep. This tower stands more than eight hundred feet above high-water mark, and commands a most extensive view, embracing the whole of the island, except one corner, the Hampshire coast, the New forest, Southampton water, Portsdown hills, the downs of Sussex, Beechy head, the isles of Portland and Purbeck, and (on a very fine day) part of the French coast near Cherbourg.

Chale bay, which is about three miles in extent, is considered very dangerous in



View of Black Gang Cliffs.

stormy weather: the shore is everywhere bold and bluff, and there is always a large swell rolling in on it; when that swell is attended with what sailors call a ground-sea, not even the strongest Newfoundland dog can gain the shore by swimming.

On the coast of the Wight, at the foot of this towering eminence, and in Chale bay, occurs one of the finest of the chines or ravines, called "Black-Gang chine." This gloomy fissure penetrates far into the cliffs that form the most southern point of the Isle of Wight. At the upper part of it, a stream, which no doubt has largely contributed to the disruption of the soil and the formation of the chasm, falls over a ledge of rocks that is nearly eighty feet high. At certain seasons, after long and heavy rains, this is no mean cataract; but during fine summers the scanty stream is retained behind the rocky ledge, or merely trickles over the brow of the precipice. Without this adjunct, however, the chine is wild, picturesque, and gloomily sublime. In some places the cliffs on either side of it are nearly five hundred feet high. These rocks are of the wildest forms, and in color almost black. There is scarcely a trace of vegetation. The whole scene reminds one of a chasm in the Alps, or, still more, of some of the lava recesses in the flanks of Mount *Ætna*. Near the Black-Gang chine, and in that very ravine, are some curious evidences of the landslides that occur so often on these coasts, and alter their appearance and character.

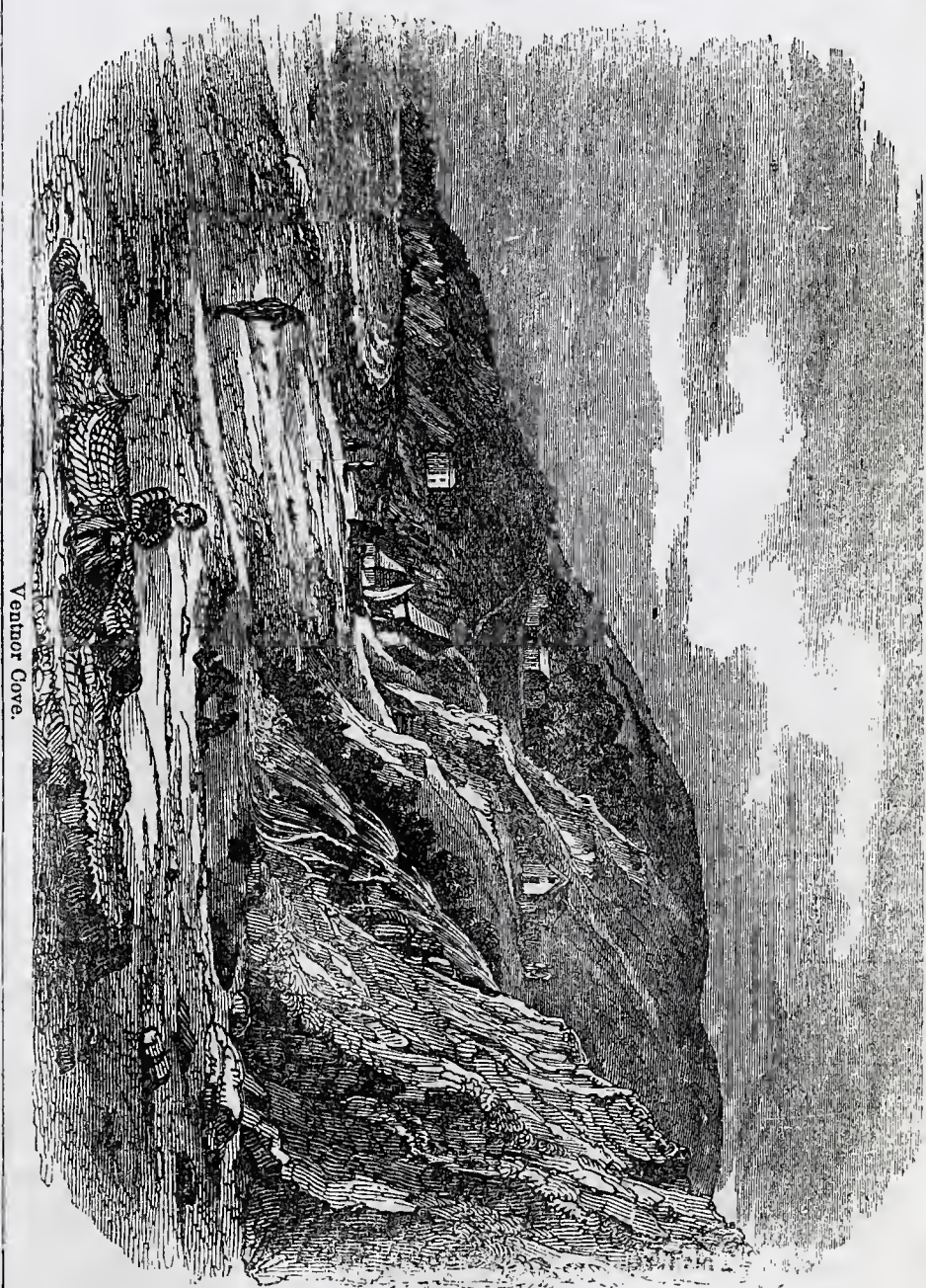
Continuing our circumnavigation, and doubling St. Catherine's point, we find ourselves close to that remarkable part of the island called the Undercliff, where the effects of great and remote landslides show themselves on a prodigious scale. Here a strip of about six miles long, and from a quarter to half a mile in breadth, seems to have settled down and slipped toward the sea, exhibiting a jumble of rocks overturned and broken—mounds of earth—deep hollows—and numerous springs, forming falls of water, collecting into pools, and hurrying to the sea. The cliffs that immediately face the sea vary from sixty to one hundred feet in height, and upon these runs the long irregular platform or terrace, which is backed on the north by a bold abrupt steep—a wall of rock, rising from two to three hundred feet higher. These upper or land cliffs are composed of horizontal beds of sandstone; being precisely the same material as is seen on the broken surface below. It is every way evident that the sunken tract or under cliff was formerly a continuation of the high cliff. "The crisis of this part of the under cliff," says M. Simond, "is evidently of no recent date, and the earth has had time to grow young again; for, contrary to the laws of organized life, inert nature loses with age its original deformity and barrenness, and is indebted to the very dissolution of its substance for its beauty and fecundity."

It should appear that the Undercliff has been formed rather by a succession of landslides, than by one grand fall or subsidence. These changes are still occurring, on a larger or smaller scale, at the two extremities of this, the southeastern, side of the island. In the year 1799, a large tract of the high cliff (from eighty to ninety acres) was of a sudden seen sinking and sliding toward the sea, the surface breaking into strange shapes, and yawning chasms, closing and opening again. This was at the western end of the Undercliff, near Niton: and a few years ago a slip of country, about a mile to the south of that village, gave a good notion of a country that had been overturned by a dreadful earthquake. The remains of a house that had been partly swallowed up were still seen. Another of these landslides happened in the winter of 1810-'11, at the eastern extremity of the Undercliff district, close to Bonchurch. M. Simond, who was on the island a few months after this subsidence, says that it extended over forty or fifty acres.

"The rents here are frightful, and the rocks are in some places ground to fragments by their friction against each other. The old surface, with its vegetation, seems to have been swallowed up, and new soil, white and barren, substituted. We have seen the roots of trees actually standing up in the air! a poetical situation assuredly, which put us in mind of that picture of the deluge in which two human feet only appear on the surface of the waters."

In 1818 there was another landslide, which threw out another little promontory into the sea. We believe there are no records of any loss of human life occurring from these moving mountains. At all events, the peasantry who reside on the spot testify but little apprehension, their usual answer to any queries being, "Oh! it is all firm and strong hereabout."

The Undercliff, as it has been well observed, unites, in a singular manner, the pastoral wildness of Scotland, the luxuriant vegetation, verdure, and shade, of the



Venhor Cove.

middle parts of England, with a bold shore, and an unbounded sea, continually traversed by ships.

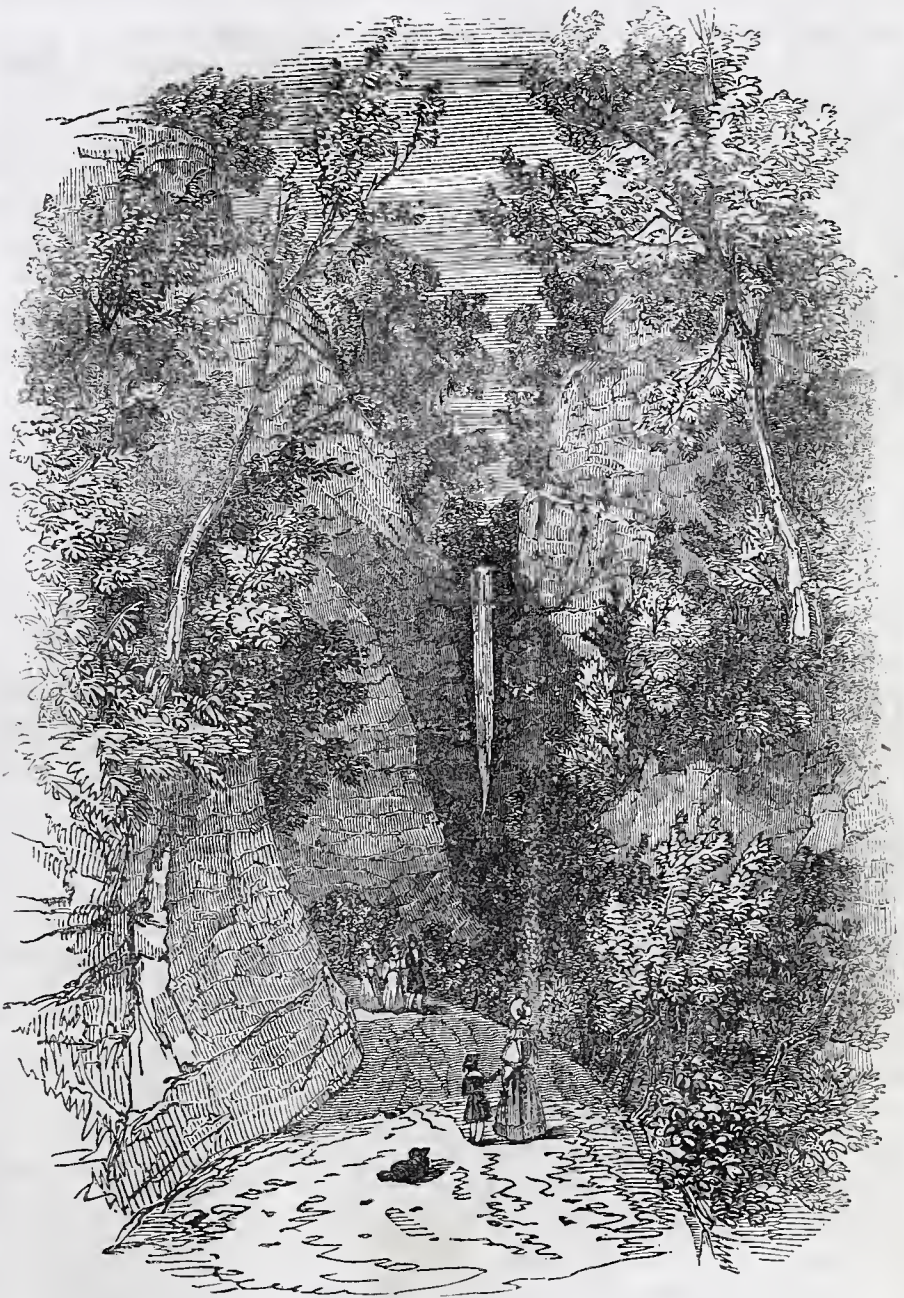
The trees that have been planted thrive in a wonderful manner, and with the luxuriant myrtle-bushes form on every side the most delightful shades, from which cottages, villas, churches, and villages, peep forth with beautiful effect. This is indeed a favored nook—an epitome of the regions of the fair south, protected and sheltered by a felicitous arrangement of nature in the regions of the north. It is not less healthy than it is lovely and picturesque. And in this little strip of mild climate and dry soil, snow is rarely seen, and frosts are only partially felt. The myrtle, the geranium, and many other foreign plants, flourish luxuriantly in the open air all through the year. In the winter months, the mean temperature of the atmosphere at eight o'clock in the morning is about forty-five degrees. But it is time to leave this "happy valley," where we have tarried long.

Continuing our excursion by sea, and keeping under the cliff, we soon come to Steephill cove, an exceedingly pretty spot, but which, however, yields the palm of beauty and picturesqueness to Ventnor cove (see engraving), about a mile farther on, and near the eastern extremity of the Undercliff. Here the upland downs, the very edges of which are seen fringed with sheep and cattle, stand out in bold eminence; there is a cliff and a little stream that tumbles from it, after working a mill; lower down, on some shelving rocks, there is a group of fishermen's cottages, disposed as if a painter had had the arranging of them—nets drying in the sun, baskets, oars, sails, "scattered all about," make up one of those marine pictures which can hardly be seen without delight; and finally, in front of these thatched cottages, there is a wide and beautiful beach, and then a far-spreading transparent sea.

Soon after turning the extremity of the Undercliff at East point, above which towers the rugged and lofty hill of Bonchurch, we come to Luccombe chine, which presents the picturesque features of rushing streams, hanging woods, scattered cottages, dark-brown cliffs, and a fine seashore. About a mile farther on (to the north-east), occurs another of these curious ravines, deeply cut through the cliff by an inconsiderable rill. This is called Shanklin chine, and is the most beautiful and most frequently visited of all the chines (see engraving). Seen from below, it appears as if the solid cliff had been rent in twain from top to bottom: the mouth of the gap is very wide; its sides are on one hand almost perpendicular, and on the other (to the right) more shelving, and partially clad with grass, and moss, and bushes, and wild flowers, and shaded with tall, graceful trees, among which, high over the head of the tourist who approaches by sea, are a few cottages most picturesquely disposed. On this side a long rude flight of steps leads up the cliff to a quiet little inn. The beach below this chine affords a delightful walk when the tide is out.

We are now in Sandown bay, which sweeps in a beautiful curve from Shanklin chine to the Culver rocks. At the further end of this bay, where the shores are flat and of easy access to an enemy, stands Sandown fort, a small work erected in the time of Charles I., and near to it they show a quiet little cottage, which was once the residence of the radical and restless John Wilkes. The contrast between the nature of the secluded spot and the character of the man is rather interesting. According to his biographer, Wilkes bought Sandown cottage, in Sandown bay, in the parish of Brading, at the southeast end of the Isle of Wight, from Colonel (afterward General) James Barker of Stickworth, in the Isle of Wight, in May, 1788. He resided there a good deal till his death, in December, 1797, and (according to this authority) by many improvements made it a very elegant abode. The cottage had been formerly in the occupation of the earl of Winchelsea. Wilkes was accustomed to call it his *villakin*, and he dated many of his letters from the place.

At the distance of about two miles from this spot, however, and to the southeast of it, the vast chalky precipice, called Culver cliff, shows itself with fine effect. A bed of coal, which is about three feet thick, and dips to the north, is seen at the foot of the precipice. This fossil occurs in some other parts of the Isle of Wight, but in such thin veins as not to answer the expense of working it. The summit of the cliff is about four hundred feet above the level of the sea, and affords a fine view across the British channel. The name of *Culver*, according to Mr. Pennant, is derived from the Anglo-Saxon *Culfre*, a pigeon, and applied here on account of the swarms of those birds which make the cliff their haunt. The same writer tells us, that at certain seasons these pigeons make most amazing flights, going daily, in vast flocks, as far as the neighborhood of Oxford, to feed on the turnip-fields, and return-



Shanklin Chine.

ing again to Culver cliff and the Freshwater cliffs, where they pass the night. The Culver is also much frequented by *auks*, and other birds that love to nestle in the holes and crannies of precipices. In former times it was famous for a breed of hawks much used in the sport of hawking, and of so valuable a kind, that, in 1564, Queen Elizabeth issued her warrant to Richard Worsley, esq., captain of the island, to make diligent search after some that had been stolen, as also "for the persons faultie of this stealth and presumptuous attempt."

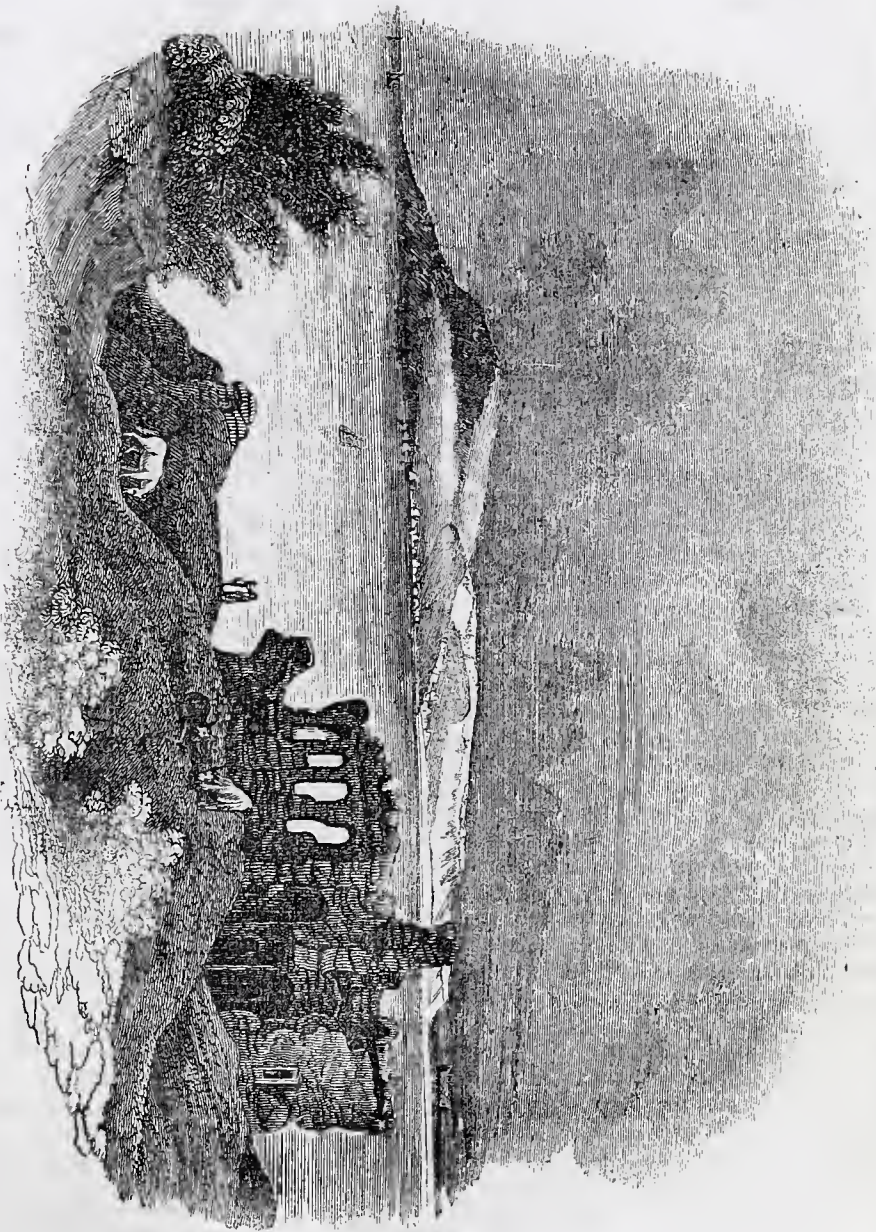
The grand scenery of these coasts terminates at Culver cliff. Doubling the eastern extremity of the island, called the Foreland, and then coming to Bembridge point, the tourist will find himself at the narrow mouth of Brading haven, which is a shallow arm of the sea at high water, but a large and ugly puddle, with very little water in it, when the tide is out. Between eight hundred and nine hundred acres of marshy land are overflowed at every tide and rendered useless. "My adventurous and noble countryman, Sir Hugh Middleton," says Pennant, "in the time of James I., in concert with Sir Bevis Thelwal, of the house of Bathavern, in Denbighshire, and page of the king's bedchamber, employed a number of Dutchmen to recover it from the sea by embankments. Seven thousand pounds were expended in the work, but partly by the badness of the soil, which proved a barren sand—partly by the choking of the drains for the fresh water, by the weeds and mud brought by the sea—but chiefly by a furious tide which made a breach in the bank—they were obliged to desist, and put a stop to their expensive project."

CHAPTER VII.

THE ISLE OF PORTLAND.

OLD writers affirm that Portland was once separated from the coast of Dorsetshire, and that it was, therefore, really an island; but now it is joined by a ridge, which some have likened to a string. It is called the Chesil bank (see engraving), and an extraordinary bank it is. Its surface, or upper portion, is composed of rounded, loose pebbles, resting on hard, blue clay. From the northern extremity of the Isle of Portland it runs along the coast of Dorsetshire, separated from it by a narrow channel or arm of the sea, to near Abbotsbury, ten miles from Portland; it then joins the land, and forms the outline of the Dorset coast, from Abbotsbury to near Bridport, a distance of about six miles. Chesil bank is in some places about a quarter of a mile broad, but its general breadth is much less. Mr. Smeaton, the engineer of Eddystone lighthouse, thought it had been formed at a comparatively recent period: "but it is very difficult to account satisfactorily either for its first formation or its continued existence. There is a similar and still more extensive ridge, bounding the Frische Haf, on the coast of Prussia."

The bay between Weymouth and the isle is called Portland road, and this bay, in our cut, is represented as lying between Sandsfoot castle and Portland. Sandsfoot castle (old spelling, Sandes Foote) was built by Henry VIII. It is now, as our cut represents it, a ruin. The usual approach from Weymouth to Portland is by Sandsfoot castle and Smallmouth sands, Smallmouth being the name of the mouth of the narrow channel between the coast of Dorset and the Chesil bank. A walk of a mile on the Smallmouth sands conducts the tourist to a ferry, where he is rowed across the "Fleet" to the Chesil bank. Here he may remark the nature of this curious ridge. The pebbles by which it is covered to the depth of four, five, and six feet, are chiefly of a white, calcareous spar (these are called Portland pebbles), but partly of quartz, chert, jasper, &c., so loose that a horse's legs sink almost knee-deep at every step. The bank slopes on the one side toward the open sea, and on the other toward the narrow inlet of the Fleet; it rises gradually toward Portland, being there composed of pebbles as large as swans' eggs; but in its course along the Dorset coast the stones gradually diminish in size; at Abbotsbury they are about the size of horse-beans, and more westward they degenerate into mere sand. The



View of Portland, from Sandsfoot Castle.

smugglers, who used to land at night, were thus furnished with a natural guage, by which they could tell where they were, whether near to Portland, or on the coast. The pebbly covering is continually shifting; a northeast wind sometimes clears away the pebbles in parts, leaving the blue clay exposed, but the bare spaces are soon covered again by the heavy sea which the southwest wind drives against the bank. At the northwest extremity of the Chesil bank there was once a "swannery," consisting of several thousand swans; wild swans still build in the neighboring swamps, and the Fleet is much frequented by different kinds of water-fowl.

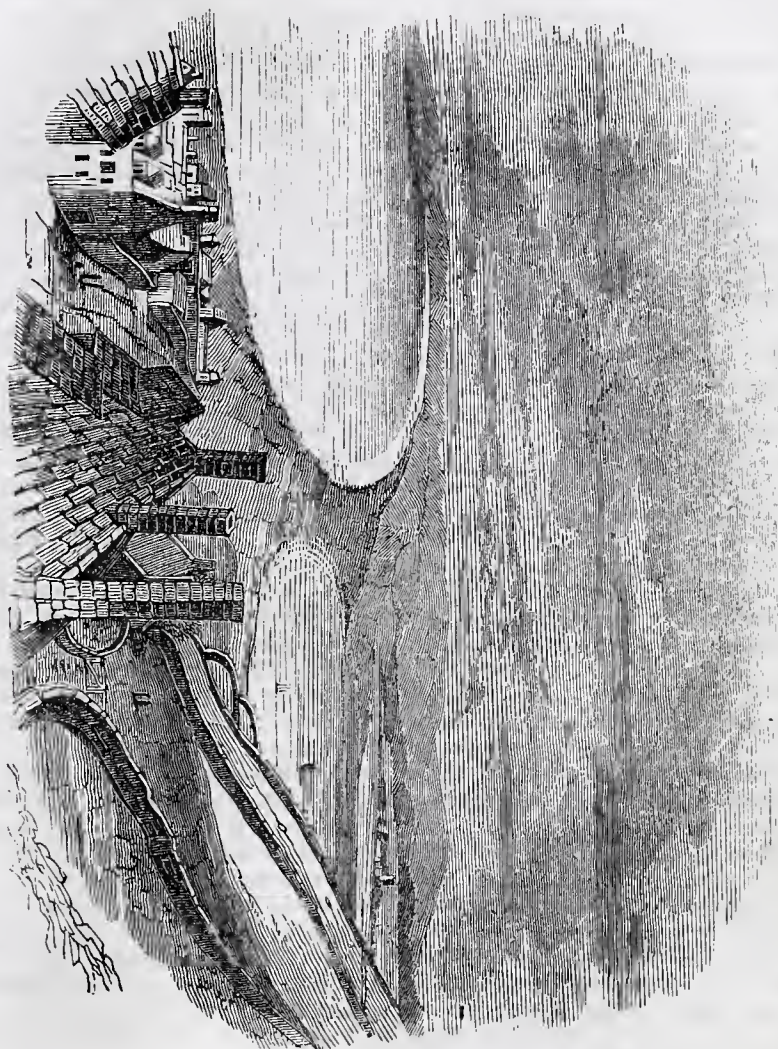
As one approaches the end of the Chesil bank, he distinguishes a line of houses disposed along the slope of the rock; this is the village of Fortune's Well.

The Isle of Portland is about four miles long, and in the widest part, nearly one and a half broad. It is a bed or rock of freestone. The highest point in the island is 458 feet above the level of the sea; the cliffs on the western side are very lofty, but those at the Bill of Portland are not more than twenty or thirty feet high. There is sufficient depth of vegetable soil to render the island tolerably productive, but not sufficiently so for the entire sustenance of the inhabitants, who get much of their provisions from Weymouth. Water is somewhat scarce; there is no stream in the island, and the necessary supply is obtained from springs and wells, which are not numerous, but in which, however, the water is copious and good. The whole island is included in one parish, which contained, in 1831, a population of 2,670.

The road from Fortune's Well to the western cliff is very steep, and commands fine views of the Chesil bank, and the low but picturesque shores of western Dorsetshire; and from the top, on a clear day, Torbay in Devonshire may be distinguished. Having attained the summit, the road runs to the right, on the extreme edge of the cliffs, from which a number of smaller roads, recurring at every hundred yards, run between lofty gullies in the face of the rocks, which rise about twenty feet above the main road. These "by-paths" lead to the quarries. If the visiter take any one of them, it will lead him through a series of well-stacked piles of sandstone, into a stone-pit of irregular form, measuring, perhaps, 200 feet or more each way, and shut in by solid walls of variously stratified stone, to the height of about sixty feet. The scene is now a beautiful one: blocks of stone as large as good-sized rooms lie tumbled about in the most picturesque confusion—white intermingled with shades of yellow, gray, and red; and enormous orange-colored stalactites, called by the quarrymen "congealed water," hang from the projecting rocks. Stains, the slow result of various decaying mosses and lichens steeped in the little rills, which are strongly impregnated with iron, give their mellowing hues to the picture. Before proceeding to explain the processes used in getting the stone, it will be necessary first to describe the structure of the crust, or superficial strata of the island. A visiter would accomplish this at once by a glance at any clean-faced cliff in his neighborhood, but in the absence of ocular demonstration, the following description, and the cut in the next page, will very clearly exhibit its constitution:—

First occurs the surface-soil, seven feet deep; second, three layers of grit, called "burr-stone, cap, and skull-cap," or collectively, the "turf-layer," sixteen feet; third, roach-stone, nine feet; which immediately covers the good Portland stone of commerce, in a compact, horizontal bed of about eight feet in depth. Beneath it follow various beds of clay, marl, flint, &c. Here, then, we have a superincumbent mass of earth and stone, 32 feet in depth, which must all be removed before a single foot of the good stone it covers can be procured—a hard task, and one which is rendered still more so by the fact, that till this is done the workmen are not entitled to any remuneration. In a quarry of ordinary size, the labors of *three years* are required to accomplish the task. First, the layers of surface-soil and rubbish are dug, and carried in strong iron-bound barrows, to be thrown over the fallow-fields in the neighborhood. Next, the "turf-layer" is raised, but the obstinacy of its structure and its weight, make it a work of serious labor. The strata of which it is composed sometimes present great solidity, and at other times are naturally split in large masses; in both cases they have to be reduced to small lumps, and lifted into carts. The breakage is done by driving wedges, and other similar contrivances; and the lifting by a peculiarly-formed shovel, whose long handle is laid along the thigh, and the load raised by a sudden jerk, the combined action of the arm and knee, and thrown into a cart, to which seven or more horses are attached, and by whom it is carried, either to be thrown over the cliffs into the sea, or piled up in large mounds, at a distance.

Chesil Bank.

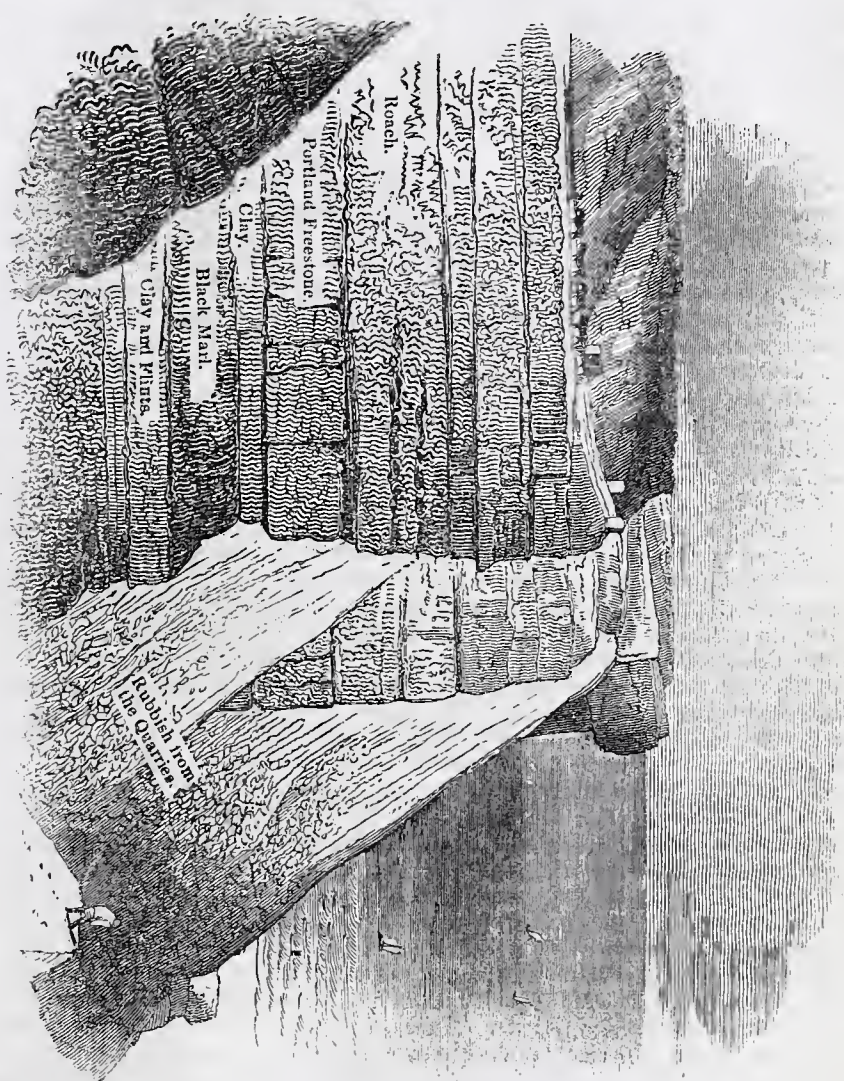


The roach-stone is the next stratum, and as it is unbroken in its mass, of great hardness, and nine or more feet in depth, it requires of course a long struggle to accomplish its removal. After clearing the surface, the first step taken is the preparation of a blast, for splitting the roach into blocks sufficiently small for removal. A circular hole, four feet eight inches in depth, by three inches in width, is then drilled in the rock: filled at the bottom to the height of two and a half inches with gunpowder, tightly rammed, and connected with a train on the outside. This is then fired, and an explosion follows, which splits the stone for several yards around, into perpendicular rents of about an inch across. The masses of stone between these rifts have now to be removed, and as some of them weigh upward of fifty tons, an amount of power would seem to be required, far beyond the compass of half a dozen quarrymen, and the scanty mechanical means at their disposal. The only instruments used are rollers of various sizes, and strong double-handed jacks; months are consequently consumed in the slow-paced operation. Three of the jacks are placed against the mass, and then follows what may perhaps be justly deemed the severest struggle in which human bones and muscles were ever engaged. More than one hundred thousand pounds of stone have to be moved a hundred yards and more *over heaps of loose stones*, by half a dozen men! The jacks being fixed in the most advantageous positions, the men commence to heave round the winches; and then the shrill cry is heard of "high, boys, high," repeated with great rapidity. Meanwhile the winches of the jacks, turned against so prodigious an amount of resistance, make a progress as slow as the minute hand of a watch. It is sufficient, however, if they do really turn at all, for it is by the smallest possible degrees the removal is at length accomplished, and the pit cleared for the production of the best stone. The exhaustion which these labors occasioned is evidenced by the frequent periods of rest, and in the constant use of the water-keg, from which they drink copiously. One of the men, when asked if the work was hard, said, "Sir, we are obliged to *heave our hearts out*, and all in the sun, too!" They do not, however, appear to suffer any permanent damage by their labors, and but little abatement of strength, even in extreme old age. A night's rest cures all. One old fellow upward of seventy years of age, who was doing the work of the strongest, remarked that through that long period he had never known sickness. The secret of this is to be found in pure air, free exposure to all weathers, and a certain quietude of mind.

When a quarry has been cleared of its rubbish, and the flooring of good Portland stone brought fairly into view, the real business of a quarryman—that by which he would choose to be known—commences. All his preliminary labors have required little beyond the exercise of mere strength, but now judgment and ingenuity are called for in the selection and preparation of the rude lumps of stone for architectural purposes; and the *laborer* becomes an *artisan*. The cleared bed of pure stone is found to be split in numerous directions by what are called "gullies," and these of course divide it into masses, varying in size according to the width of the gullies. In this way blocks of every imaginable size and form are procured; and when they have been wedged out, a council is held by the men, and it is discussed whether this one would make a pier-stone for a bridge; another, a shaft for a column; a third, a baluster for a parapet, and so on. These important uses determined, the masses are severally dragged to convenient spots, and reduced to square or appropriate forms by the action of a double-headed iron picker, called a "kivel," and weighing twenty-five pounds. The only business remaining, previous to the delivery of the stones to the wharf, is to ascertain their weight, and to mark it on them. The former is computed by measure, sixteen square feet being estimated to weigh a tun; and the latter by cutting the amount in certain hieroglyphic characters. A monogram of the proprietor's name is also added.

When the stone is ready for delivery, it is lifted on a stage-like cart, with solid wooden wheels, exactly resembling the wagon of the ancients and the Moorish bull-cart of Spain at this day. To this is yoked seven horses; and in the case of the western quarries it is then taken to a railway station at the top of Fortune's Well hill, and entrusted to the care of a company, who send it round the hills by inclined planes, to a wharf at the foot of the Chesil bank, a mile and a half distance.

The Portland quarrymen constitute about 500 of the population, and are evidently a distinct and well-defined race. They are nobly formed, and come very nearly to the finest antique models of strength and beauty. In height they vary from five feet ten inches to six feet. Large bones, well-knit and strongly-compacted muscles, con-



Western Cliffs, Portland.

firmed in their united energies by the hardest labor, in a pure atmosphere, give them a power so herculean, that three cwts. is lifted by men of ordinary strength with ease. Their features are regularly and boldly developed; eyes black, but deprived of their due expression by a partial closure of the lids, caused by the glare of the stone; complexion a bright ruddy orange; the hair dark and plentiful, and the general expression of the countenance mild and intelligent. Their usual summer costume on working days is a slouched straw hat, covered with canvass and painted black, a shirt with narrow blue stripes, and white canvass trousers. On Sundays they add to these a sailor's short blue jacket, and look very like good-natured tars in their holyday trim.

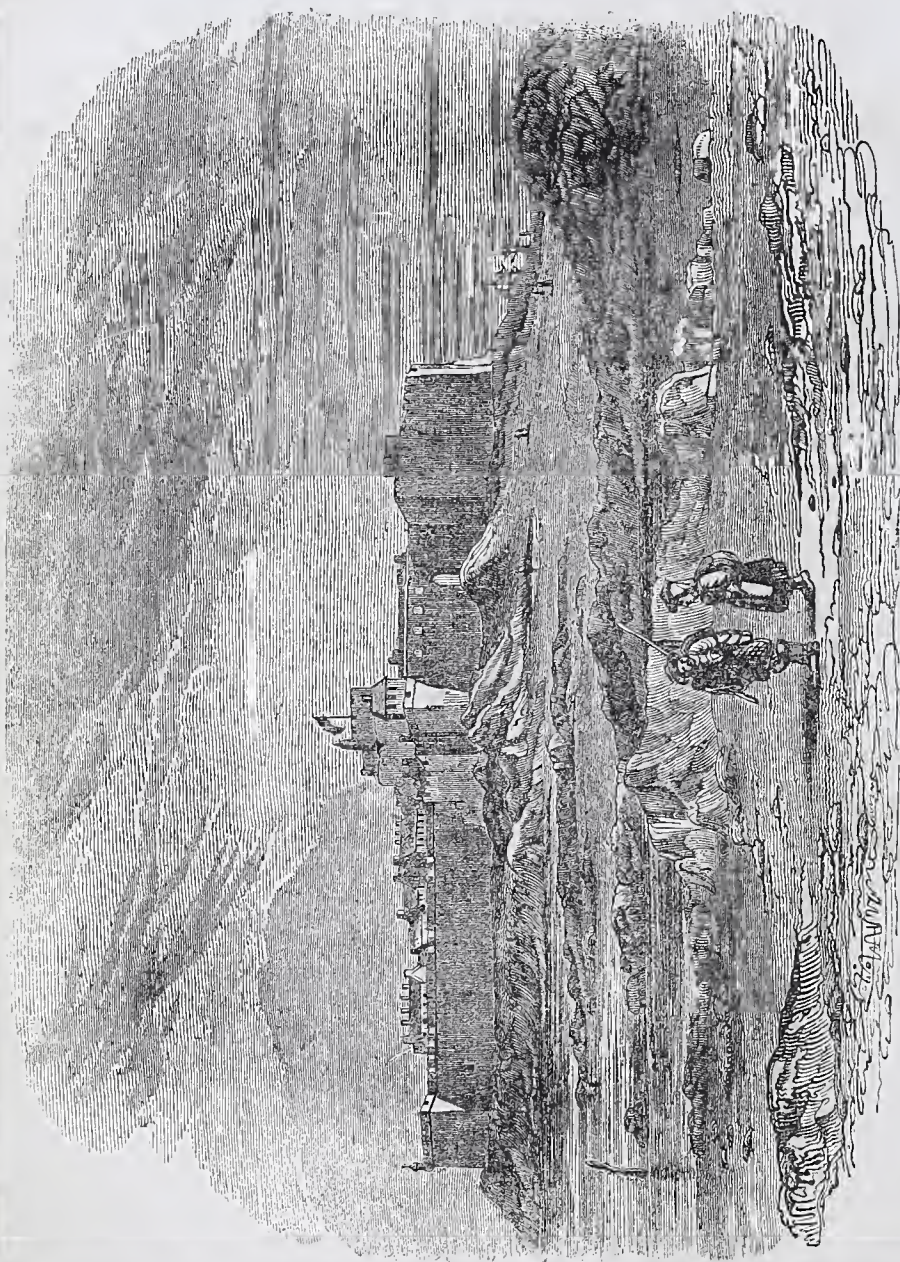
Pennsylvania castle, the residence of the late Governor Penn, is the only place in Portland assuming the dignity of "a seat;" and is also the only spot on which anything like a clump of trees is visible. An old historian, speaking of this circumstance, says "there be very few or utterly no trees, saving the elms about the church (now gone). *There would grow more if they were there planted*; yet is the isle very bleak." This sensible remark has been amply verified in the grounds before us. The common sycamore will stand the severest sea breezes, and under the shelter it affords, almost any forest-tree may be grown. By surrounding his land with a ring fence of them, Mr. Penn succeeded in embossing his house with a very agreeable variety of trees and shrubs, while all around him was a desert. A winding path leads past a ruined oratory, to Bow-and-Arrow castle, a noble remnant of the days of Stephen. It stands three hundred feet above the level of the sea, on a perpendicular cliff split into rifts like the empty veins of a lead mine, and so loosened by age, they seem every moment to threaten separation, and to bring the proud pile that crowns them to destruction. Turning the angle of the castle wall, a fine view is before us. On the left there is a range of cliff scenery from two to three hundred feet in height; an undercliff at its base, about one thousand feet in breadth, is covered with a profusion of dislocated rocks, amid which many little clearance quarries may be distinguished. To the right the sea spreads into the distance, bounded in the horizon by the Isle of Wight, and more nearly by the white undulating cliffs of Dorsetshire. A walk through the ruins of the undercliff claims our first attention. A precipitous path from the castle leads to it. On reaching it the traveller will be surprised to see that what had appeared at a distance to be a "waste howling wilderness," is in reality a paradise of flowers; indeed, the undercliff and the adjacent heights constitute together the garden of the island. The land-plants of the undercliff are all of a miniature description, or what botanists would call "starved specimens"—a littleness which results from the scarcity of earth, mould being formed almost exclusively by the decomposition of the rocks. We may here remark, that the influence of plants in the production of color is much overlooked; and as they affect peculiar localities, and by their predominance give them distinct and highly characteristic aspects, deserve the best study, both of the poet and the painter. In no place is this more strikingly exhibited than the present. Various species of stonecrop (*Sedum*) of a warm ruddy green fill the angles of the rocks; spurges, particularly the purple (*Euphorbia Peplis*), the sea (*E. Paralias*), and the Hortland spurge (*E. Portlandica*), grow plentifully, and exhibit bright warm yellows, changing in decay to vivid reds, which, together with the former, give great splendor to the foregrounds. The golden samphire (*Inula erithmoides*), the scarlet seeds of the flags (*Iridææ*), and the dark green leaves of the ivy, which is sparingly found, frequently combine with the pale red and pink flowers of various species of cranesbills (*Geranicææ*), to mantle the gray rocks with robes of beauty. Numerous species of lichens literally paint the rocks; the majority of them are of a bluish-gray tinge, intermingled with occasional patches of red and yellow. Warm clusters of ferns and hearts-tongues add elegance of form to the splendor of the adjacent tints.

The margin of the sea is also beautiful. The sunken rocks of which the beach is composed are covered with fuci of every degree of warm tints; and these contrast with the blue of the sea and masses of submerged chalk. The forms and motions of these aquatic vegetables give a gay character to the shore—some short and paddle-formed; others long and riband-shaped; hundreds of every variety of branched and fibrous forms, and some again fine and delicate in their structure; but all of them streaming in long undulating fields, gracefully waving with the advancing or retreating waters, while occasionally an uprooted conferva peeps above the surface, is driven toward the shore, dances awhile, and sinks at length, to be again and again

thrown up to the surface. The often unheeded music of *common* sounds also lends its aid to the beauties of the scene. The sea, as it lashes over the pebbles in long sinuosities of foam, or, swelling in broad sheets, bursts on the larger rocks, utters an alternate series of brisk and hollow sounds. Linnets in happy couples *chitter* in their short zigzag flights from rock to rock, till the echoing cliffs send back their softened merriment; the prolonged monotone of the wheat-ear lends an elevated and tender emphasis to the melody of the waters, while the blackbird in Governor Penn's shrubbery seems with his mellow pipe to plead against the gossip of the sparrows and the loquacity of the daws in the cliff-tops.

In returning to the castle, it will be worth notice how completely the character of the landscape is changed by viewing it with the face to the sun: in that position the shadowed sides only of the rocks are seen, and all appears harsh, angular, and dismal; but turn your back to the light, and the warm sunbeams change everything into light and beauty. The manner in which the various rocks decay will also deserve a passing observation. Most of them, being compounded of different elements, decay in the order of their coherence. In some the soft matters vanish, leaving a curious aggregate of crystals, bones, or shells; others shrink into singular honey-combed forms, or resolve in straight lines, circles, or shapeless masses, which leave the block tunnelled with large holes. Many decay in forms so strange, that they would be difficult to describe. We noticed one that looked like an enormous cluster of worm-casts.

The walk on the cliffs from Bow-and-Arrow castle is of a mountainous but softened character, and terminates in a lofty conical mound, called the Vern hill, composed of clayey soil, and carpeted with the most delightful verdure. From its top, during the spring and early summer months, a phenomenon of great and rare splendor may be observed. At those times, although the sun exerts considerable power, the air is still comparatively cold; this is frequently the case in so great a degree on the coast lands of England, that immense volumes of foggy vapor are raised from the warm surface of the earth, and immediately condensed into bright fleecy clouds. These leave the mainland, and stretching across the sea, cover the whole of the lower parts of Portland, the higher parts remaining meanwhile perfectly clear. "On such occasion," remarks a traveller, "I made it my business to leave the 'cloud-capt' valleys and ascend as high as mother earth would permit. On the first ascent I saw the whole circuit of the island swaddled in what appeared to be an immense belt of rolling clouds, over which the sun was shining brilliantly. The sea was gone—the cliffs were immersed—and nothing was visible but the flat top of the island, which looked like an Alpine garden floating in the clouds. It was the most splendid sight I had ever witnessed. I saw this spectacle repeatedly during my stay in the island, and always found something new to admire. Sometimes the clouds would suddenly disperse, and then the coasts of England, the sea, and the base of the island, would one after another appear, and would be again immersed in clouds. At other times the silvery veil would slowly leave the island, and sailing gently over the ocean, conceal first the ships, then St. Adh  lm's head on the coast of Dorsetshire; next the Isle of Wight; and then withdrawing, would reveal those objects in all their freshness and beauty. Occasionally, also, the cloudy canopy would not be equally dense, or partial rents would occur in it; and then, perhaps, a ship, a house, or a cow, would be observed, and look as if floating in mid air. The sea aids this remarkable spectacle; for although it is shut from view, its noise is heard, and lends a feeling of mystery to the scene."



Elizabeth Castle, Jersey.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE ISLE OF JERSEY.

JERSEY is in form an irregular parallelogram, about ten miles long and five broad. Its greatest length, from southeast to northwest, is about twelve miles. Its circumference, taking all the sinuosities and windings, is nearly fifty miles. Its superficies contains about forty thousand acres. The surface of the island slopes from north to south—the whole of the northern coast, with the eastern and western shoulders, being composed of lofty, precipitous cliffs, while the southern shore, though fringed with crags and beds of rocks, lies low, and has a considerable portion of sandy beach. The whole circumference of the island is indented by bays, coves, and inlets.

Jersey is locally divided into twelve parishes, each with its old-fashioned parish church. The town of St. Helier, the only town in the island (for all the other collections of houses have no claim to a higher title than hamlets or villages), lies in the parish of the same name, on the southern shore. Not far from St. Helier's is St. Saviour's; southwest of St. Helier's, on the seashore, is St. Brelade's; St. Ouen's is on the western side of the island; St. Mary's, St. Peter's, and St. Lawrence's, may be termed inland churches. Not far from the north coast are St. John's and Trinity; and on the east are St. Martin's, Grouville, and St. Clement's.

St. Helier, we have said, is on the southern shore; it lies on the eastern side of the beautiful bay of St. Aubin. In proceeding to St. Helier from England, we sail by the western side of Jersey, turn round by the craggy southwestern corner of the island, pass St. Brelade's bay, and, rounding Normont point, a projecting rock forming the southwestern extremity of St. Aubin's bay, sail across the bay to its eastern side, passing the rock on which stands Elizabeth castle (see engraving).

The rock on which Elizabeth castle is built is not less than a mile in circumference; and one is surprised, on passing through the gateway, to find a wide grassy level, terminated by extensive barracks and their appurtenances. In war time, this fortress was an important place, and no doubt presented to the eye and ears of the traveller a very different scene from that which it now presents. Decay seems now to be creeping over it; and although a solitary sentinel is still to be seen pacing to and fro, and although pyramids of shot still occupy their accustomed places, grass and weeds have forced their way through the interstices, and the rows of dismounted cannon show that the stirring days of war have gone by. May the weeds long grow, and the rust continue to creep over the engines of death!

On the top of a rock, situated a little to the south of Elizabeth castle, and, like it, accessible at low water, may still be seen the rude remains of a hermitage, the canonized tenant of which is said to have given name to St. Helier.

Elizabeth castle, as a fortification, has been thrown into the shade by a huge fortress, termed Fort Regent, which was begun in 1806. It was erected at an expense of eight hundred thousand pounds; but the utility of the work bears no proportion whatever to the immense sum of money which it cost.

St. Ouen's bay occupies nearly the whole of the western side of Jersey, forming a curve between four and five miles in length. There is nothing, however, remarkable on this side of the island. The bay of St. Ouen presents a large, flat, sandy tract, which is exposed to all the fury of the western gales. Part of the bay is said by Falle to have been a fertile valley, in which grew an actual forest of oaks, but was submerged about the end of the fifteenth, or beginning of the sixteenth century. He also mentions that the inhabitants had a traditional belief, that the irruption of the sea was a judgment from heaven.

St. Brelade's bay is one of the many bays, creeks, and coves, of various dimensions, which indent the circumference of Jersey, and though not the most remarkable, is a singular and interesting spot. The church stands on the western side of the bay, the churchyard being washed by the sea at high water. "The whole building," says



View of Fort Regent.



St. Brelade's Church.

Mr. Plees, "is small, very plain, both internally and externally. It has neither spire nor tower, but over the nave it is roofed like a house. There is indeed a round turret, that rises from the ground, but which is built in a nook, and ascends only to a small belfry." One of the old chapels of the island, which are stated to be anterior in the date of their erection to the churches, is in St. Brelade's churchyard. It is the only one in tolerable preservation. "It was called," says Plees, " 'La Chapelle és pécheurs.' St. Brelade's bay," he adds, "is a semicircular basin, the regular contour of which is broken on its eastern side by a projecting mass of rocks, by which a second curve is made, forming a smaller bay. The valley is a sterile spot, scantily strewn over with meagre blades of grass, yet a species of ground-rose creeps over the sandy surface. The flower resembles the common dog-rose, and is delightfully fragrant." "The shores of this bay," says Mr. Inglis, "are sloping, as are all the southern shores of the island, and are everywhere covered with a small ground-rose, of the finest color, and emitting all the fragrance of the 'rose d'amour.' Excepting in the southern parts of Bavaria, I have never observed this rose elsewhere than in Jersey."

Another object of great interest in the Isle of Jersey is Mount-Orgueil castle (see engraving). Mount-Orgueil castle (*Orgueil* is lofty or proud) has some interesting recollections connected with it. Here, for a time, lived Charles II., during the days of his wandering, before he came to that throne, the possession of which he so grossly abused; and here, for three years, was imprisoned one of the victims of the ignorance and evil passion of the age, William Prynne. Prynne was the victim of bigotry, yet he himself had much of the bigot in his spirit and prejudices. In a petition to the house of commons, in 1641, he complains that he was sent from Caernarvon castle to Jersey "in a bruised shipwreckt vessel, full of leakes, and after *fourteene weekes voyage* in the winter season, through dangerous stormes and seas, which spoyled most of his stuffe and bedding, and threatening often shipwreck to him, he arrived

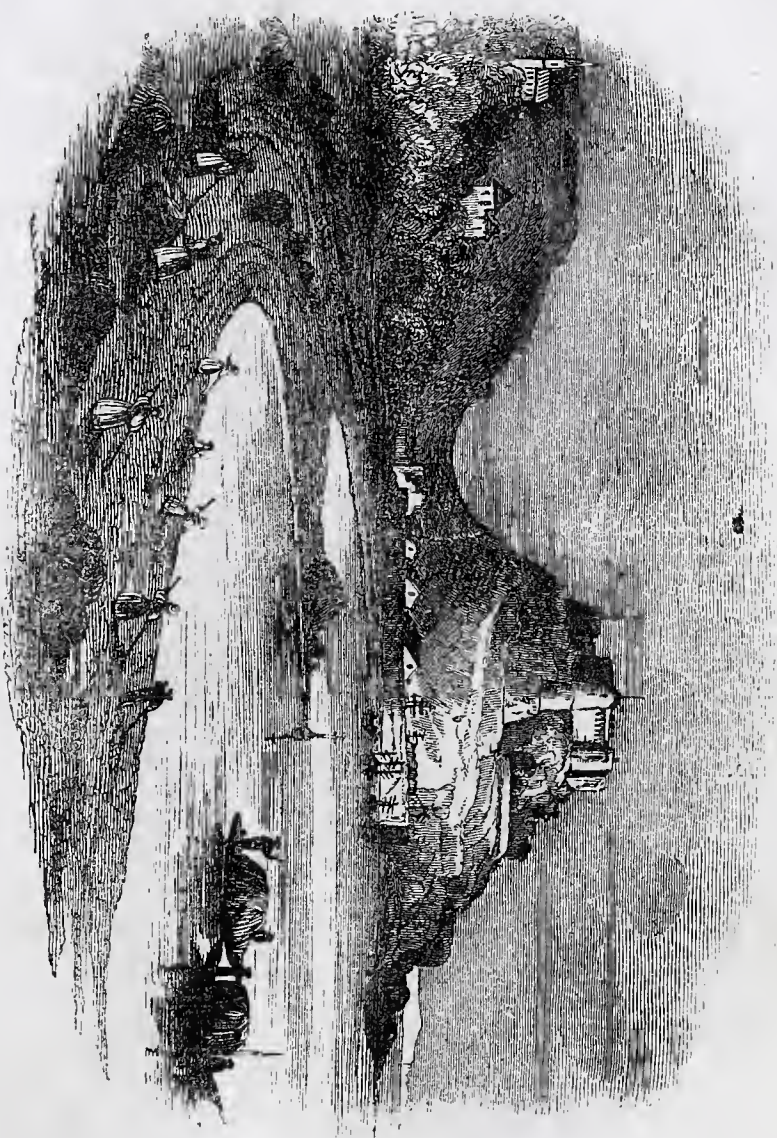
at the said isle, and was conveyed close prisoner into Mont Orgueil castle." Yet this heroic and dauntless sage of the law, who for the freedom of his speech and writing was fined, put in the pillory, had his ears cropped, and was sent from prison to prison, makes it one of his complaints in his petition, that some of his fellow-prisoners and passengers to Jersey were Roman catholics, with whom he was compelled to associate ! While Prynne was in Mount-Orgueil castle, he celebrated it in verse, and entitled his poem, "A poetical description of Mount-Orgueil castle, in the Isle of Jersey, interlaced with some brief meditations from its rocky steep and lofty situation."

Mount-Orgueil castle is the most ancient of the fortifications of Jersey ; it has seen service in its day. How long it existed previous to the reign of King John is not known—at that time it was enlarged and strengthened. The rocky headland on which it stands, whose lofty appearance has given origin to the name, juts out into the sea, separating Grouville bay and St. Catherine's bay, which occupy the greater part of the eastern side of Jersey. "Whether seen from land or from sea, Mount Orgueil is well entitled to the appellation of an imposing ruin. In many parts the walls are yet entire ; but in other places, massive as they are, they have yielded to the pressure of time ; and the mantle of ivy, which in most parts hangs from their very summits, is in fine unison with the gray tint of age that here and there is seen where the walls are bare, and with the loopholes and 'rents that time has made.' The ascent to the summit is somewhat toilsome ; but one is amply repaid for the labor of it by the magnificence of the prospect. It embraces several of the bays which lie on either side—the richly-wooded range of heights, that girds the central parts of the island ; the village [of Gorey] far below, with its harbor and shipping ; the whole expanse of sea ; and the distant coast of France." The cathedral of Coutance, in Normandy, can be distinguished on clear days.

One remarkable custom still exists in Jersey, in nearly all its pristine vigor, for the wants of the inhabitants uphold it. This is the collection of the seaweed, which serves both as manure and fuel. Dr. McCulloch, in his geological tour over Jersey, found no trace of lime. Falle mentions the want, and describes the substitution of seaweed. Pless thus amplifies the account of Falle : "Though neither chalk, limestone, nor marl, has been hitherto discovered in the island, yet the Divine Goodness has not left Jersey without a substitute for manure : this is seaweed, of different species of algæ, all called in the island by the general name of 'vraic.' This marine vegetable grows luxuriantly on the rocks round the coast. It is gathered only at certain times, appointed by public authority. There are two seasons for cutting it. A part is dried and serves for fuel, after which the ashes are used for manure ; and part is spread, as fresh gathered, on the ground, and ploughed in ; it is likewise scattered, in the same state, over meadow land, and is said to promote the growth of grass. It may, perhaps, have this effect ; but, as the solar heat in summer-time, and the frequent stormy winds, soon parch it, some of its salutary influence seems likely to be lost ; and it appears probable that a slight sprinkling of seawater would, though perhaps in a less degree, have a similar effect. Vraicking is a dangerous employment. Fatal accidents happen almost every season. The boats go to a considerable distance from the shore, and return deeply laden. A sudden squall rises, the currents are rapid, and the unwieldy bark is either overset, or whelmed beneath the surge."

Inglis gives a more cheerful description of "vraicking." The French word *varech*, equivalent to our general expression seaweed, is in the Jersey dialect "vraic ;" there are two seasons for gathering it, summer and winter, the days of commencement being appointed by the court, each time about ten days. "When the vraicking season begins, those whose families are not numerous enough to collect the needful supply assist each other ; and the vraicking parties, consisting of eight, ten, or twelve persons, sally forth betimes, from all parts of the island, to their necessary, laborious, but apparently cheerful work. Although a time of labor, it is also a season of merriment : 'vraicking-cakes,' made of flour, milk, and sugar, are plentifully partaken of ; and on the cart, which accompanies the party to the sea-beach, is generally slung a little cask of something to drink, and a suitable supply of eatables. Every individual is provided with a small scythe, to cut the weed from the rocks, and with strong leg and foot gear. The carts proceed as far as the tide will allow them, and boats, containing four or six persons, carry the vraickers to the more distant rocks, which are unapproachable in any other way.

Mount Orgueil Castle.



"It is truly a busy and a curious scene: at this season, at half-tide, or low water, multitudes of carts, and horses, and boats, and vraickers, cover the beach, the rocks, and the water; and so anxious are the people to make the most of their limited time, that I have often seen horses swimming and carts floating—so unwilling are the vraickers to be driven from their spoil by the inexorable tide.

"But this seaweed is not, as I have said, employed solely as manure, but is also used as fuel; and for this purpose it is collected at other times than at the regular vraicking seasons, not from the rocks indeed, but from the sea-beach; for, of course, some of the weed is constantly detaching itself from the rocks, and is borne to the shore by the tide. The collection of this seaweed is a constant employment with those who live near the seashore; and the produce of their labor is either used for fuel, or is sold to those who want it. At almost all times, men, women, and children—but chiefly the two latter—are to be seen at this employment, gathering, or spreading the weed out to dry: they use a rake, or three-pronged pitchfork, and a wheelbarrow, in which it is carried above high-water mark to be dried. This is the universal fuel of the country, and it makes a hot, if not a cheerful fire. Coal is scarcely at all used, and only a very small quantity of wood along with the vraic, and this event not universally. On feast days only, and family gatherings, a coal fire is lighted in the best parlor."

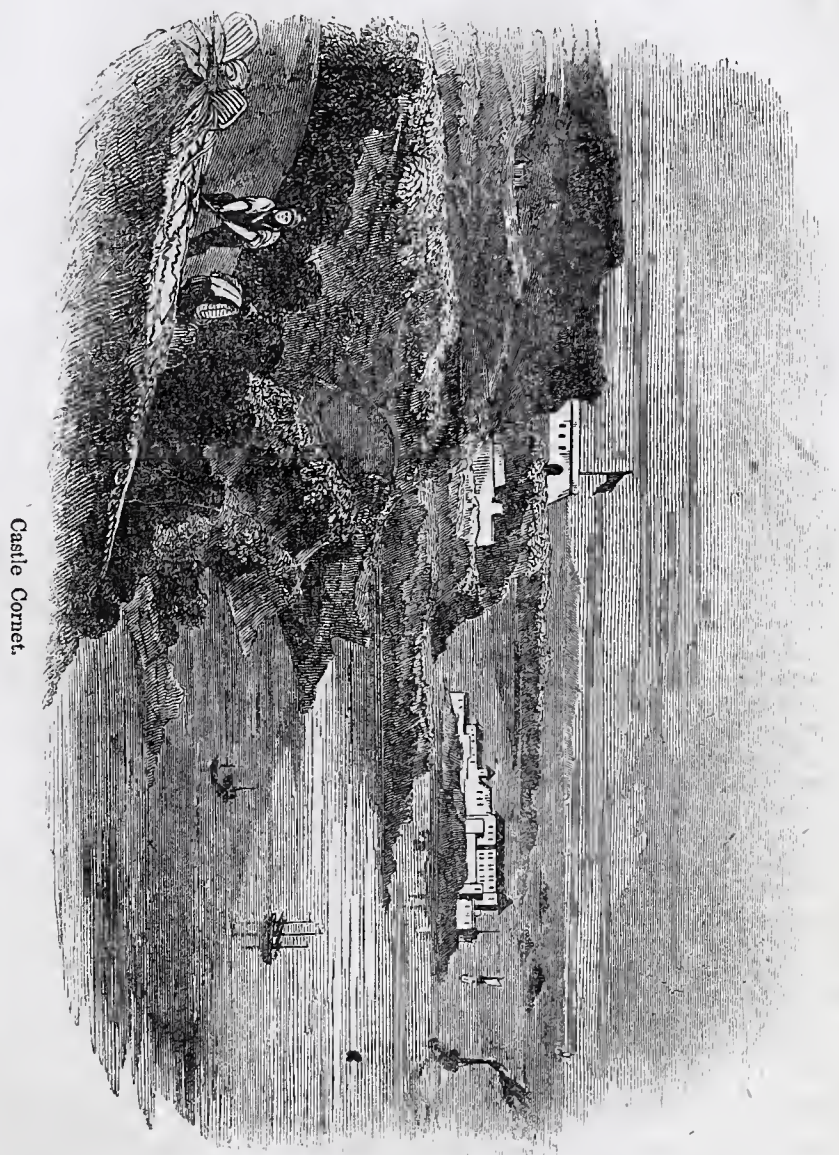
CHAPTER IX.

THE ISLE OF GUERNSEY.

THE rural scenery of Guernsey, though destitute, in some measure, of both wood and water (meandering streams), two essential requisites to constitute the finished landscape, might almost vie with that of the Isle of Wight, which, for beauty, has long been celebrated as the garden of England. Some of the bays are grand and romantic; particularly those of Petit-Bo and Moulin-Huit, and the village of the King's Mills, embosomed in hills (excepting on the west, which opens to the sea), are perhaps the most picturesque and enchanting, though the scenery about St. Martin's is much to be admired. In spring, the whole face of the country is clad in the richest vesture; primroses, violets, and blue-bells cover the verdant banks; and the apple blossoms of the numerous orchards, which have the fauciful appearance of small, blooming coppices, and in part supply the want of wood-scenery, are beautiful beyond description; even the little rills, though not seen meandering through the meadows, nevertheless add to the beauty of the landscape by turning the overshot wheels of several mills in deep valleys, which have a pretty effect; in short, such a profusion of flowers of all sorts unfold their varied hues, and fruit and vegetation in general are so plentiful and luxuriant, that Flora and Pomona seem to vie with each other in lavish distribution on this their favored isle.

The island of Guernsey is almost entirely of granitic formation. Its shape approaches the triangular, broad at the south end, and tapering to the north. Its breadth, at the south end, is about seven miles; at the north end from one to two; and in the centre of the island about three. Its extreme length, from the northeast to the southwest, is about nine miles; the average length about six. The superficies of the island contains 15,559 acres; of which, however, a considerable portion is waste, or meadow, recently reclaimed from the sea. The population of the island in 1831 was 24,349; of which 13,893 were in the town of St. Peter's Port.

Nearly in the centre of the east side of the island is a long curve, or irregular bay, in which lies the town of St. Peter's Port. As St. Helier's, in Jersey, as its rock in the harbor, with Elizabeth castle, so St. Peter's Port has its rock, with Castle Cornet. Both, formerly, were the residences of the respective governors of the islands. Castle Cornet, like Mount Orgueil, is a very ancient fortification. As its story of siege and defence may not be so interesting as the account of an accident which befell it, we may pass by the one, and give the other, as circumstantially detailed by Barry:—



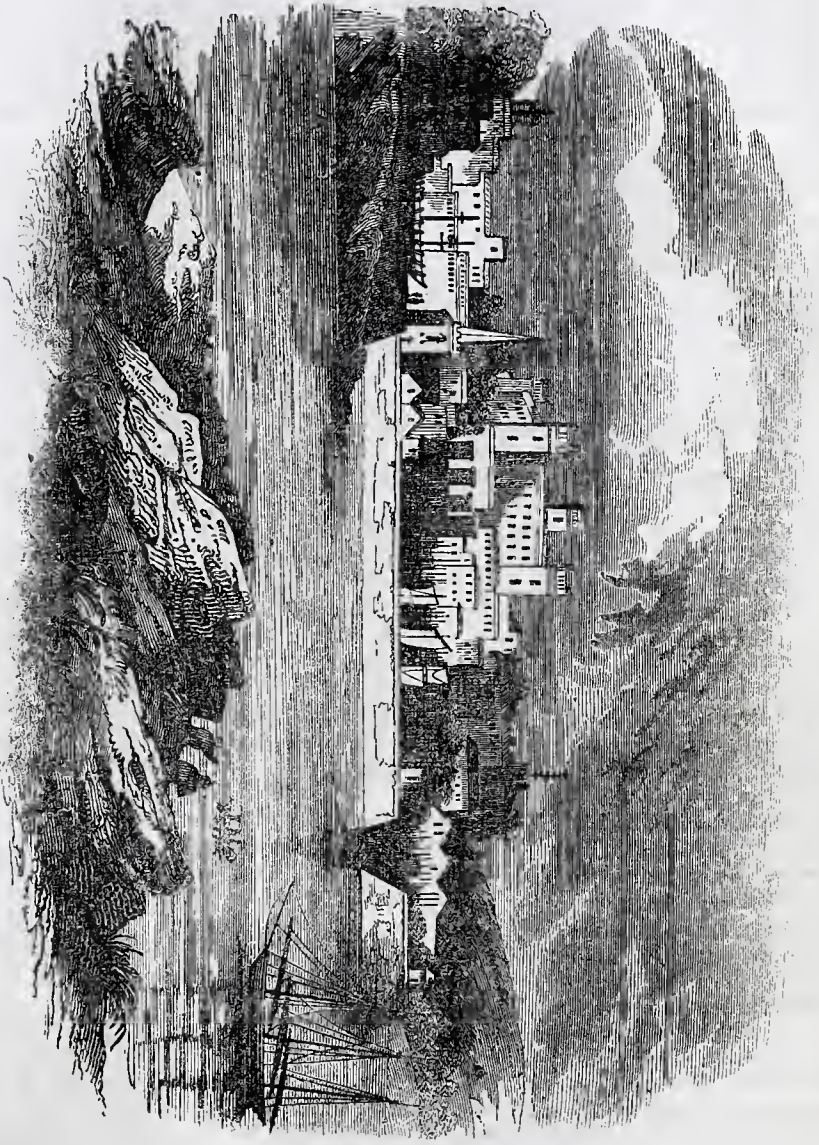
Castle Cornet.

"The dreadful catastrophe by fire happened on the 29th December, 1672, by the lightning communicating with the magazine, which blew up, with a terrible explosion, carrying with it most of the houses and lodgings of the castle, and in particular some new and handsome buildings, then lately erected at considerable expense, by the governor, Lord Viscount Hatton, who (together with his family and some other persons) was lodged at the time in a part of the castle thrown down by the shock, and buried in the ruins. It appears that the dowager Lady Hatton, who was in the upper part of the castle, called the new buildings, was killed by the falling in of the ceiling of her apartment. Lady Hatton, the wife of the governor, and daughter of the earl of Thanet, being greatly terrified at the thunder and lightning, had fled to her children in the nursery, and was likewise destroyed, with her waiting-woman and nurse, the latter of whom was found dead, with his lordship's second daughter in her arms, unhurt; though it is related that the child held in her hands a small silver cup, her usual plaything, which was much battered and bruised. The youngest child, who lay in a cradle almost filled with rubbish, was likewise saved without the least injury. But beside those mentioned, several other persons lost their lives. A marvellous story is related of his lordship's preservation, who, it is stated, was fast asleep at the time; and by the explosion was carried away in his bed, unhurt, to the battlement of a wall washed by the sea, between rugged precipices; and, what is still more extraordinary, it is averred to be a fact, that his lordship did not awake till a shower of hailstones that fell on his face roused him from his sound repose. He was then conveyed by two black servants to the guardroom of the castle, in a state of anxiety for the safety of his family, more easily conceived than described; but their melancholy fate could not be ascertained till daylight. A lieutenant of a company of foot, whose apartment was under that of his lordship, was forced by the shock into an entry beneath, and escaped unhurt. Lord Hatton's two sisters, an ensign belonging to his lordship's company, and his wife, with several other persons occupying apartments in the upper buildings of the castle, were also providentially saved. A large beam, it is said, fell between Lord Hatton's two sisters, who were before together, and completely separated them; from which perilous situation they were rescued, with little hurt, through a hole obliged to be cut in a party wall for the purpose. None of the others were seriously injured, though their rooms fell in, and they were nearly buried in their beds with the rubbish."

Castle Cornet is a very striking object in approaching St. Peter's Port. It is not so picturesque an object as Elizabeth castle, because it is not, like the latter, flanked by other rocks than that upon which it is built; and the folly of whitewashing part of it has greatly injured its naturally venerable appearance. It is difficult to distinguish between Elizabeth castle and the rock upon which it is built, but the renovators of Castle Cornet have taken care to make the line distinct enough. The castle is at present in a tolerable state of repair, mounts some cannon, and is garrisoned by a few soldiers. There are some good houses within it, though, as might be expected, it is not a strong fortification, in the modern acceptance of the phrase.

The town of St. Peter's Port looks remarkably well from the water, and in this respect completely eclipses St. Helier's, in Jersey. It is built on the slope of an eminence, the houses overtopping each other; and on approaching after sunset, the various lights from the windows and the public lamps give it really a brilliant appearance. But, like many more important places than St. Peter's Port, these appearances are deceptive; and all the apparent attractions of the town disappear when one steps on shore. The first impressions of St. Peter's Port are decidedly unfavorable. We perambulate narrow, steep, and crooked streets, flanked by substantial, indeed, but old-looking, dusky houses; and walk as long as we may, we reach no open space, where we may stop and look about us. We speak at present of the town only, not of the environs, which are delightfully situated. The advantage which St. Helier possesses over St. Peter's Port is this, that the houses of the gentry are thrown into rows and streets, and form a part of the town; whereas, the better houses in Guernsey are not within the town, but are detached residences; and herein consists the great beauty of the environs of St. Peter's Port, which just as far exceed the expectations of the traveller, as the town falls below them.

The "lions" of St. Peter's Port are, its handsome fishmarket, its hospital or refuge for the destitute, and Elizabeth college. To these we may add the parish church. The fishmarket is quite a creditable thing to so small a town and so small an island. So also is the hospital or workhouse, for the excellent manage-



View of St. Peter's Port.

ment and support of which the people of Guernsey deserve great praise. Elizabeth college is a fine building; it stands on an elevation behind the town, with a spacious area round it, ornamentally laid out.

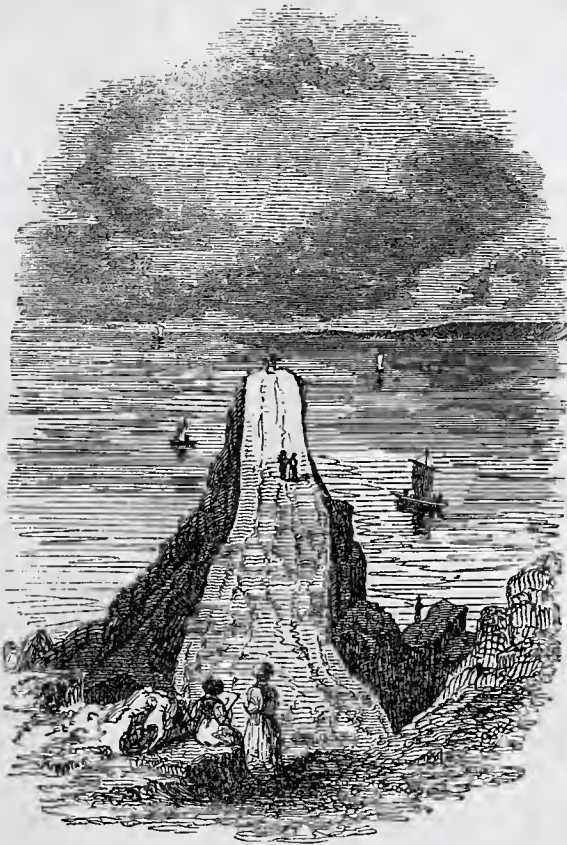
The visiter will be struck with the superior neatness of the cottages of Guernsey, as compared with those of Jersey. He will also remark the passion which the people of Guernsey have for flowers. Splendid geraniums may be seen trailed up the front of many of the cottages, and among the other flowers cultivated, we must not forget the far-famed Guernsey lily, the pride of the island, and the favorite of every gardener, and every cottager who has a bit of garden ground. The Guernsey lily belongs to the amaryllideæ, or narcissus tribe of plants, and is a native of Japan. It is said to have been introduced into Guernsey by accident. A vessel, having some roots on board, was wrecked off the island, and these being washed on shore, grew up on the beach: and the Hon. Mr. Hatton, son of Lord Hatton, the then governor, being charmed by the beauty of the flower, set about its cultivation, and naturalized it.

Guernsey is easily examined. The north end of the island is narrow, bare, and ugly, a large portion of it only having been reclaimed from the sea a few years ago, through the exertions of the same worthy governor who accomplished the making of the roads. It had previously been a marsh; and when the tide was full, the northern end of the island was completely cut off from the rest of it, and could only be approached by a bridge or causeway. The water was shut out by an embankment; the land was sold, and is now enclosed; and the purchase-money was applied to the making of the new roads. The southern and southwestern sides of Guernsey contain whatever of natural scenery is worth seeing. The environs of St. Peter's Port have been already mentioned. There is a fine field in the neighborhood of the town, called the New Ground, which is surrounded with double rows of trees, and was intended as a promenade for the inhabitants, though the inhabitants do not choose to promenade there, but, like their neighbors of Jersey, prefer the pier. From this ground there is a fine marine view—as there is to be obtained all round the town—which includes in it the islands of Herm, Jethou, and Serk.

The Serk, or Sereq, is decidedly the most interesting of the whole group of the channel islands. It lies about six or seven miles from St. Peter's Port; and appears at a little distance, to be an elevated table-land, presenting on all sides frowning walls of rock. On the side next to Guernsey there is no mode of access but by slinging one's self by ropes up the rock; or, if the boatmen can be persuaded to go round the island there is a scanty slip of beach, with a door and a tunnel in the rock, through which the visiter finds entrance. In this harbor there is a beautiful little fountain of the clearest and coolest water, continually trickling down the rock, which is received in a natural basin, from which the fishermen fill their casks. The harbor is exactly what one might fancy to be a pirate's den—and indeed, during a portion of the fourteenth century, Serk was a pirate's nest, but that was before the tunnel was made. The tunnel, which is not unlike the entrance to a beehive, escapes notice at first; and the visiter feels that though landed in the harbor of Serk, he is still outside of the island. But after getting through this tunnel, instead of finding the island to be a flat, elevated country, it is found to be "covered with luxuriant crops—is diversified with wood—is intersected by roads—is broken into romantic valleys—is spotted with substantial farmhouses—and maintains in comfort and independence a hardy and industrious population of between five and six hundred."

The peninsula of Little Serk is connected with the main island by a high narrow ridge. This is about three hundred yards in length, and has a precipitous face to the sea on the eastern side; to the west it is also partly rocky and precipitous, and the remainder is a steep declivity of broken rocks and rubbish. It is called the Coupée, and on the top of it is a rugged path of frightful appearance, being in many places not above a yard or two in breadth, and in most without boundary on either hand. By this, the communication between the two parts of the island is kept up.

The Coupée and the rocks and precipices in its neighborhood, are much visited by strangers. The engraving represents a favorite "pic-nic" spot; it is covered with grass to the summit. Serk may be described as an island having a body and head, joined by a narrow neck. The body is Great Serk, being the chief portion of the island, the head is Little Serk, and the neck is the Coupée. This, therefore, is a chief wonder of the remarkable island of Serk. The neck or isthmus is about four or five feet broad, with precipices on either side of about three hundred feet down to



The Coupée Rock, Serk.

the sea. On the one side the descent is perpendicular, on the other precipitous; but though Mr. Inglis says that a person would be more rash than bold in attempting a descent, with a little careful dexterity, one can scramble up and down. The bridge or neck of rock is, of course, dangerous in windy weather, there being no fence or protection on either side. Mr. Inglis tells a droll story about an inhabitant of Little Serk, who was a frequent visiter of Great Serk, and often prolonged his visit at the public house. But being cautious in his cups, he always made an experiment with himself before he ventured across the narrow bridge. A piece of artillery had been posted near the spot during the war, and the tippler would try himself by walking on the cannon from end to end two or three times. If he accomplished this without slipping, he judged himself steady enough to cross to Little Serk; but if otherwise, then he lay down in the heath and indulged himself with a nap. On awaking he renewed the experiment, and if then steady enough, he jogged homeward.

Altogether, Serk is a very remarkable place, with its caverns, its steep and many-colored rocks, its fruitful and romantic valleys and dells, its "creux terrible," a pit in the rock, into which the sea enters by a cavern below, and "from whose darkness and profundity one instinctively draws back;" not omitting the Coupée, and Little Serk, with the ladder of ropes on one side of the island, and the harbor and its doorway and tunnel on the other. Add to these its recently-opened mines, from which copper and silver have been obtained in small quantities. No wonder Mr. Inglis exclaims, "What a retreat would Serk be to the professional or the literary man from the din of the metropolis! What a contrast between the crowd, and bustle, and noise of Fleet street, and the repose and free air of Serk, with its deep still dells and flowery knolls, and quiet bays and monotonous sounds." Yet in speaking of the healthiness and longevity of the inhabitants, he dryly puts this question—"Are ten years added to one's life an equivalent for a life spent in Serk?"

Herm and Jethou need not detain us long. They are islets lying off the east side of Guernsey, about midway between it and Serk. Herm has granite quarries, the working of which gives employment to a number of individuals, and has increased its population to about two hundred; its shores are celebrated for the great variety and beauty of the shells to be picked up on them, though this reputation is more of a past than a present kind. From the nature of the rocky shores of Serk, there is scarcely any seaweed to be obtained; but the inhabitants have a privilege of gathering it on the shores of Herm, where it is to be obtained in great abundance. Jethou is smaller than Herm, but is a more picturesque object. It contains the proprietor's house, an excellent orchard, about a score of people, and a number of rabbits.

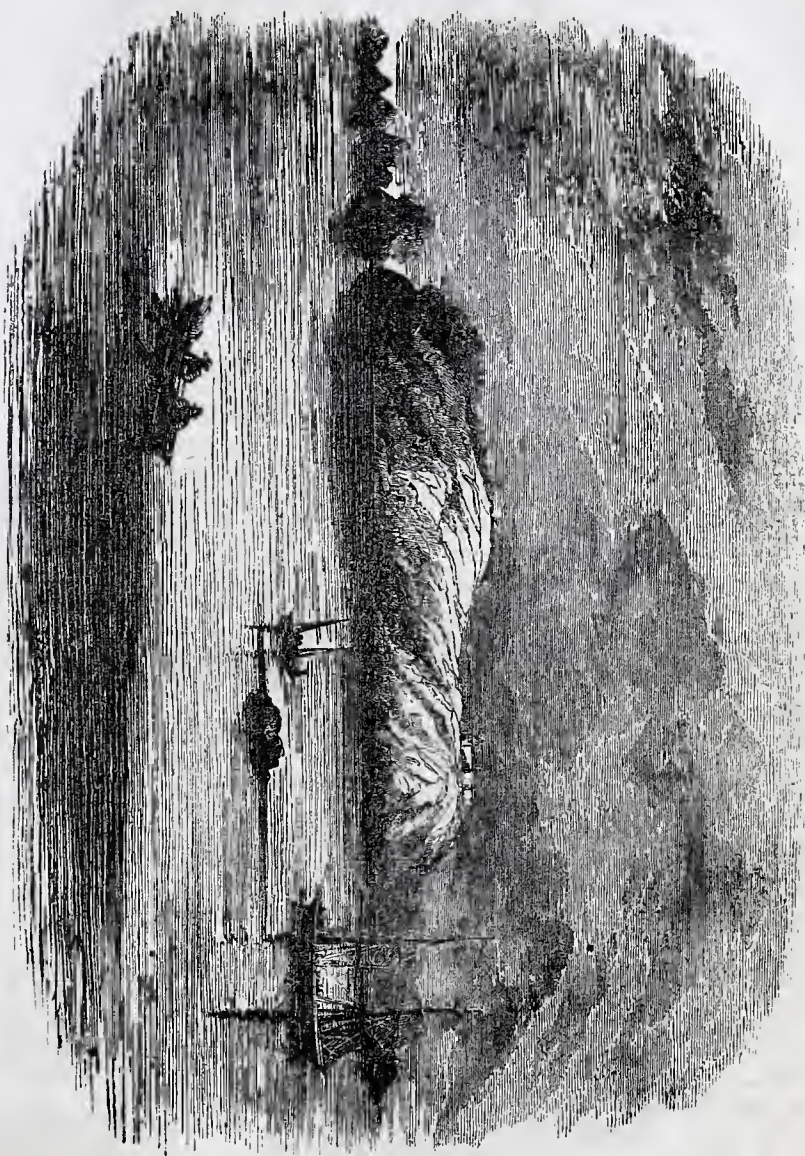
Alderney has given name to the beautiful little cattle of the Channel islands, and of which their natives are so proud. Special laws both in Jersey and in Guernsey protect the purity of the breed. The importation of foreign cattle is strictly prohibited, under heavy penalties.

Alderney is distant from Guernsey (northeast by north) about fifteen miles, or twenty from port to port; from Jersey about thirty-three miles from coast to coast, and forty-five from port to port; and about fifty-five or sixty miles south-by-east of Portland Bill, the nearest point of England. The communication with Guernsey is much more frequent and regular than with Jersey. Alderney possesses four vessels, the total burden of which is only one hundred and fifty tons. During the oyster season some of them ply on the French coast; but two, at least, run regularly to Guernsey, paying a visit occasionally to Jersey.

The island is about three miles and three fourths long, from northeast to southwest; about one mile and three eighths broad; and about eight miles in circuit. The southeast coast is formed by picturesque and lofty cliffs, from one to two hundred feet high: but as the island shelves toward the northeast, the coasts in that direction are of less elevation, and more indented with small bays, such as those of Longy or Câtel (query, Châtel—Castle?) bay on the east, and of Braye on the northwest. The last affords good anchorage, and near it is the only harbor in the island, that of Crabby, which, however, is fit for none but small vessels. The approach to the island is dangerous in bad weather, in consequence of the rapidity and diversity of the currents, and the rocks and islets which surround it in every direction.

The "Race of Alderney" lies between the south end of the island and Cape La Hogue, the extremity of the Normandy peninsula. The width of the channel is about seven miles, and it affords sufficient depth of water for the largest ships; but in stormy weather it is very dangerous. The "Swinge" is on the north side, between Alderney and another island called Berhou. Mr. Inglis, who visited Alderney from Guernsey, says: "The sun was setting before we entered the Swinge. As it got lower the boatmen tugged the harder at their oars, anxious, as they said, to make Alderney before dark—not on their account, but on mine; for, supposing I had heard a good deal of the dangers of Alderney, they probably concluded that I was not perfectly at my ease, and they kept now and then repeating to me, in their own indifferent French. '*Monsieur, jour et nuit, c'est la même chose pour nous*'—[day and night, it is all the same for us]—that was to say, that they knew the navigation so well, that it signified nothing whether it was dark or light when they got into the Swinge. For my part, never having seen the Swinge, I felt no great dread of it; and it was so calm, and mild, and beautiful, that darkness seemed scarcely to have anything of terror in it.

"Notwithstanding all the exertions we made, it fell almost dark before we reached the coast; and when we entered the Swinge there was just light enough to see that its dangers had not been exaggerated. Suddenly, from the calmest water we were plunged into an ugly, plashy sea; dancing and breaking as if there were rocks not a foot from the surface. I was just able to see that in some places there were currents like cataracts, and in others singular wide hollows and eddies, like whirlpools; while at no great distance I could perceive the black heads of rocks, appearing and disappearing as the swell of the troubled sea rose and fell among them; and still the boatmen continued their solitary sentence, '*jour et nuit, c'est la même chose pour nous*.' It soon became as dark as it is on any March moonless night; but I felt secure in the knowledge and skill of the boatmen; and about an hour after dark, something black and square and high appeared on our bow, which turned out to be the back of the harbor, which we soon after—but apparently with great straining at the oars—safely entered; and from what the boatmen now told me, I had reason to



The Island of Alderney.

congratulate myself, not on an escape from danger, for I do not suppose there was any, but from considerable inconvenience. Owing to our protracted voyage, the tide had already began to turn; and if we had been half an hour later, or had not been favored by a light breeze which sprang up when it fell dark, no efforts could have carried us into Alderney; and we should have been obliged to have submitted to be carried again through the Swinge, and to have passed the night as we best could."

The climate of Alderney is mild and healthy, though from its more northerly position it is more exposed than the other islands to the northeast winds that sweep the channel; "there is scarcely a rood of land throughout the island that is not exposed to every wind that blows;" fogs, too, are not unfrequent. The soil is sandy, gritty, and gravelly, round the coast, but in the valleys it is very fertile, producing excellent corn and the best kind of potatoes, much superior to those of Jersey or Guernsey. In the meadows they grow rye-grass and clover, which give excellent milk and butter. The grass lands occupy about one third of the area of the island. The land is generally elevated, but consists both of high and low tracts; a good supply of excellent water is procured in every part of the island.

CHAPTER X.

THE SCENERY OF WALES.

WALES has already been described as a mountainous region, the chief peaks of which somewhat exceed 3,000 feet in height. It is visited by tourists from all parts of the kingdom, on account of the picturesque scenery with which it abounds, particularly in the northern district or *North Wales*. Its hollows or vales contain none of those beautiful expanses of water which mix such softness with the grandeur of the Cumbrian scenery, but are traversed by impetuous rivers and torrents, according with the precipitous and savage character of the landscape. The vales of North Wales are deeper and narrower than those of South Wales; these expand in many instances into broad plains, affording scope for the operations of the agriculturist, and for the building of towns and villages.

Among the rivers of Wales, the Wye is celebrated for the beauty of its course, and the picturesque scenery presented by its banks. It takes its origin from the mountain of Plynlimmon, a mountain of South Wales, which is about 2,462 feet above the level of the sea, and situated on the verge of Cardiganshire and Montgomeryshire, and gives birth to five rivers, the most important of which is the Severn, and the most beautiful the Wye. The sources of the Severn and Wye (like the fountain-heads of those grander streams, the Danube and the Rhine) are close to each other, and, after pursuing opposite courses, their waters meet, and roll into the ocean together.

For the beauty and variety of the scenery on its banks, there is no river in England at all comparable with the Wye, nor do we believe, notwithstanding the superiority of some of them in point of size, that there is a single river on the continent of Europe that can boast such scenes of alternate grandeur, gracefulness, and pastoral beauty—such an uninterrupted chain of exquisite landscapes as occurs on the Wye all the way from Goodrich castle to Chepstow castle.

It is only at a comparatively recent date that the Wye has become at all frequented on account of its scenery. About the middle of last century, Dr. John Egerton, who was afterward bishop of Durham, was collated by his father to the rectory of Ross, in which pleasant town, situated on the bank of the river, and just at the point where the beautiful scenery begins, the doctor resided for nearly thirty years. He was a man of taste, and had a lively enjoyment of the pleasures of society amid the beautiful scenery of his neighborhood. His chief delight was to invite his friends and connexions, who were persons of high rank, to pay him summer visits at Ross, and then to take them down the Wye, which river, the "Pleased Vaga echoing through its winding bounds," of the poet, as well as the town of Ross, had

derived an interest from the verses of Pope. To this end Dr. Egerton built a pleasure-boat; and year after year excursions were made, until it became fashionable to visit the Wye. The poet Gray, too, remarks: "My last summer tour was through Worcestershire, Gloucestershire, Monmouthshire, Herefordshire, and Shropshire, five of the most beautiful counties in the kingdom. The very principal light, and capital feature of my journey, was the river Wye, which I descended in a boat for nearly forty miles, from Ross to Chepstow. *Its banks are a succession of nameless beauties.*" It may almost be said that the last happy moments Gray knew in this world were spent upon the Wye; for a few months after we find him a prey to ill health and despondence, complaining of an incurable cough, of the irksomeness of his employment at Cambridge, and of "mechanical low spirits;" and he died in the course of the following summer.

Descending from the lofty sides of Plynlimmon, the Wye, at first an insignificant stream, flows on in a southerly direction, traversing the county of Radnor, which it divides from Brecon. For the first ten miles, or as far as Llangerrig, the country has little to recommend it, being naked and dreary, with brown peat-covered hills in the distance; but from Llangerrig to Rhayader (a distance of twelve miles) the scenery is rather romantic, the river being flanked by bold rocks, and running over a declining irregular bed, in a succession of falls or rapids. At Rhayader, which is in itself a curious, romantic specimen of the small towns of Wales, the river commences to be very picturesque, and there is a fine view of it from the bridge at the entrance of the town, where it falls over a ledge of rocks and forms some deep and dark pools, after which it tears its way through white rocks and crags into a somewhat open and spacious bed. Near to this spot the Wye receives two tributary streams—the Eilon and the Ython—which materially increase its importance; and the whole of the valley between Rhayader and Bualth, or Builth, a distance of thirteen miles, is singularly romantic. The road lies for the most part, close to the bed of the stream, and affords the most favorable views of the lofty banks, the rocky channel, and the winding, devious course of the river. At one point a grand mass, called the Black mountain, seems to choke up the vale and deny all passage to the Wye, which runs rapidly toward it; but just as the river reaches the foot of the mountain, it turns toward the north, and, after opening an unexpected narrow passage, it expands into a broad picturesque bay, a little above Bualth. From this old town, which is entered by crossing a long and rather rude stone bridge, the views of water, wood, mountains, and plain, are fine and extensive. The town itself has an essentially Welsh character; and some of the most interesting events in Welsh history took place in its neighborhood. It was here, on the left bank of the Wye, that the celebrated hero Llewellyn was defeated and slain, in 1282, by the army of Edward I.

The road from Bualth to Hay affords some fine prospects of the Wye, though it does not always lie near to the bed of that river. On approaching Hay the scenery loses much of its picturesque wildness—mountains and rocks begin to disappear, neat villas and country-houses occur frequently. The town of the Hay, or, as it is commonly called, the Welsh Hay, is pleasantly situated, and is in part very picturesque. There is a tower with the gateway of an old castle finely covered with ivy, and, in the rear of the church, there are some slight vestiges of fortifications which are supposed to be Roman. A little below the Hay the Wye bends to the east, and enters the beautiful plains of Herefordshire with a slow and majestic pace. Having travelled sixty miles from its source in Plynlimmon, and received numerous tributary streams, it has here the appearance of an important river; but the bed is broad and shallow, and no kind of vessel is seen upon it before reaching the city of Hereford. About two miles below the Hay, and close on the banks of the Wye, stands an old castle, partly surrounded by woods. This was the birthplace of the fair Rosamond, of whom the old chroniclers and poets made so much, and of whose real history so very little is known. The antique building is called Clifford castle, and forms a good feature in a very pleasing landscape. The whole valley of the Wye, from the Hay to Hereford, is highly cultivated and pretty, but devoid of grandeur.

In the ancient city of Hereford, which has a singular air of tranquillity and of the olden times throughout, the tourist may spend a delightful hour or two in examining the fine Gothic cathedral. There are some pleasant promenades in the outskirts of the town, particularly one on a quay immediately above the Wye, which is here a quiet, stately river, as unlike as possible to the brawling mountain torrent which it

is above Rhayader, or the foaming, impetuous stream it is above Bualth. About six miles below Hereford it receives the river Lug, and near the confluence of the two streams there is a curious elevation, called Marclay hill, which seems to have been thrust up by some convulsion of the earth, like the Monte Nuovo, in Italy, that suddenly rose out of and almost entirely filled up the Lucrine lake. According to Camden, for three days together did Marclay hill "shove its prodigious body forward, with a horrible roaring noise, and, overturning everything in its way, raised itself, to the great astonishment of all beholders, to a higher place." In volcanic countries such phenomena are not rare, and sometimes, instead of protrusions and ascents, there are descents, which are equally curious. In the province of Apulia, in the kingdom of Naples, there is a hill that slid down into the plain, carrying with it, without much damage, a small town that stood on its summit. Even the church-tower, the highest building in the place was not overturned by the locomotion.

Although the road only now and then affords a glimpse of the Wye, all the country between Hereford and Ross is varied by swelling hills, hop-grounds, orchards, and woods, and is lovely in the extreme.

On entering the small quiet town of Ross, which is beautifully situated on an eminence close to the left bank of the Wye, everything reminds one of honest John Kyrle, whom Pope has immortalized, and the eye is attracted to the church and the "heaven-directed spire," to the trees he planted, to the causeway he laid down, and to the rest of his useful and honorable labors. Indeed, spending a day at this pleasant town is like spending a day with the "Man of Ross" himself, for we are reminded of him whichever way we turn, and the inhabitants have most religiously cherished his memory, and all the little circumstances and anecdotes relating to him. Near to the decent, quiet inn where we staid, there stands the house he built himself and inhabited; and in the clubroom of another little inn in the town they preserve the good man's arm-chair. John Kyrle's fame was acquired by the judicious employment of a small fortune in works of public utility, and those works are fairly set down, and without exaggeration, in Pope's well-known and admirable lines, although, as Dr. Johnson observed, it is probable that his "five hundred pounds a-year" did not pay for all those improvements and charities, and that through his example, his known integrity, and active benevolence, his wealthier neighbors were, in some instances, induced to join their purses with his for the public good and the ornament of their town.

In his time, the country round Ross, which in the twelfth century was a forest interspersed with marshes, and swarming with wild boars and wolves, was greatly wanting in trees, and Kyrle directed his energies to the supplying of this deficiency. He planted a vast number of elms in the churchyard and glebe, and in the rear of the church he laid out a beautiful avenue, which is called the "Prospect," or "The Man of Ross's Walk." It is on the ridge of a hill, and commands a fine view of the valley, and the river, and the hills beyond. It is said of him in King's "Anecdotes," that "he had a singular taste for prospects; and by a vast plantation of elms, which he disposed of in a fine manner, he has made one of the most *entertaining* scenes the county of Hereford affords. Through the midst of the valley below runs the Wye, which seems in no hurry to leave the county; but, like a hare that is unwilling to leave her habitation, makes a hundred turns and doubles."

Within the church is still shown the pew where the good man sat for so many years, and which, out of respect to his memory, has never been altered or touched during the several alterations the church has since undergone. Two slight elm trees grow *inside of the church*, and indeed within the pew, partially curtaining with their foliage the tall arched window that opens upon it. The local legend is, that some years ago a rector impiously cut down some of John Kyrle's dear elms that stood in the churchyard, outside of the window, and opposite the pew, and that thereupon, as if determined to show their affection for their planter, some roots threw out fresh shoots, which, penetrating the church-wall, grew up over the very seat he used to occupy. The legend, at all events, is pretty, and there are the trees growing in the church, and their light green leaves gracefully extending over the pew, to answer for its veracity. The people who now show the interior of the church seem to regard the trees as miraculous and sacred objects, and they will probably be left to grow unmolested in the aisle, until their size becomes inconvenient and requires trimming.

In Pope's time, John Kyrle lay "without a monument, inscription stone;" but in 1776, Lady Betty Duplin left a sum of money for the purpose, and his name is now

recorded in a *simple* inscription, but in *gold* letters, on a marble tablet, over which is placed that other doubtful adjunct of monumental fame, a tolerably "bad bust." The memory of honest John did not require these things to preserve it, but they will do it no harm, and they proceeded from laudable motives.

In the corner of the churchyard there is a curious old stone cross, commemorating the ravages of the plague—that fearful disorder from which all have been so long exempt.

A little below the town of Ross, on the right bank of the river, stand the ruins of Wilton castle, the history or name of whose baronial founders we forget or overlook in our respect for a remarkable man who once held possession of it, and who left it, with the rich estates adjoining, to a public charity of the best kind. This man was Thomas Guy, the founder of Guy's hospital, in London. The estate of Wilton castle was left by him to that establishment.

A few yards lower down, the Wye passes under Wilton bridge, the arches and piers of which are of curious construction, and were first built at the end of the sixteenth century. So far, and indeed for a mile or two farther, the scenery of the Wye, including the view of Ross, with its steeple, its terraces, and trees, is only pretty and graceful; but, on approaching Goodrich castle, it becomes bolder and grander. On either side, the banks begin to rise into lofty precipices, or wooded hills, of the noblest forms; and the sudden turns and windings of the stream, every minute bring unexpected and startling objects in sight, and give a new aspect and character to the features of the scene already passed. At the very point where a massy ivy-covered ruin and an antique-looking castellated building are most desirable, we find the ruins of Goodrich castle, and—that admirable imitation of the antique—the mansion of Sir Samuel Meyrick, called Goodrich court. As we approach this point, which is about four miles below Ross, the river expands, and forms a sort of bay; and on the right bank, on a lofty-wooded eminence, which projects as a promontory, stand the ruins and the mansion.

The ascent to the old castle, from the bed of the river, is steep; but the path lies, for the best part, through a pleasant wood, and every resting-place offers a delightful view. The castle itself presents grand and imposing masses of masonry of different periods of architecture. The keep, which is the most ancient part, is in the Saxon style; but there are evident signs of alterations and improvements of a much later age; and in other parts of the building, which seems to have been successively enlarged, we trace the Tudor style. The history of the place is not well preserved, but there was a castle here (consisting probably of the keep and little else) before the Norman conquest, and the last additions to it should seem to have been made in the time of Henry VII. During the great civil war, it was the scene of desperate contention. It was occupied in the first instance for the parliament, but was afterward seized and garrisoned for Charles I. by Sir Richard Lingen. It was retaken by the parliamentarians under Colonel Birch, after some hard fighting, at the beginning of August, 1646, being the last castle in England, with the exception of Pendennis, that held out for the king. During the siege, it suffered considerably from the mortar-pieces, granadoes, and "the great iron culverin" of the assailants, and, in the month of March following, it was ordered by parliament, "that Goodrich castle should be totally disgarrisoned and slighted" (that is, destroyed). From the immense, and in some parts almost perfect, masses that remain, we may judge that the people employed on this work of destruction were sparing of their labor and gunpowder; and we are happy that it should have been so, as they have left us a fine ruin—just ruined enough to be picturesque, and sufficiently entire to attract and gratify curiosity in the examination of its arrangement and details. Whether seen from the water below, or from the hillside, being taken in connexion with the river, the woods, and the rocks, it is a beautiful object. From the battlements of one of the towers there is a glorious view.

The winding river now leads through scenes of constantly changing and increasing beauty and magnificence. For some time Goodrich castle remains a prominent feature in the landscape, for the Wye here makes a remarkably bold sweep, going completely round the wooded headland, and returning, as it were, upon the castle in another direction. Another sudden turn brings full in view the magnificent forest of Dean, and the romantic spire of Ruer-Dean church rising among the trees. Here both banks are lofty and steep, and both woody; but the woods on the left bank are intermingled with rocks. Villages in the most beautiful situations, rural churches,



Goodrich Castle.

and scattered cottages, now begin to peep more frequently from the hills upon the river that reflects and multiplies them.

Two miles below Welsh Bicknor, on the left bank of the Wye, and in Gloucestershire, there is another village, called English Bicknor, and near to that point the sublime rocks of Coldwell present themselves with wonderful effect. There the river forms a beautiful little bay, and passengers can land on some rocks and greensward, and contemplate at their leisure a scene which we have seldom seen surpassed, and which is called "the first grand scene on the Wye." Our engraving will give some notion, however imperfect, of this remarkable spot. Continuing the navigation, we come to Hunt's Holm Roye, where a picturesque parish church stands on the river's brink. On account of the tortuous course of the river, this place, which is only one mile from Goodrich by land, is rather more than seven by water. The cheerful village of Whitechurch, backed by the bold hills called the Great and Little Doward is next seen, and passing other spots and objects of beauty too numerous even to name, we next come to Symond's Yat and the New Wen, which is generally called "the second grand scene on the Wye." At Symond's Yat we landed and climbed up a towering rocky promontory of great height, which (while seen from below, it is one of the grandest objects met with) affords the finest of all the views of the mazes of the Wye, and a magnificent landward prospect over the counties of Gloucestershire, Herefordshire, and Monmouthshire. Here the turrets of Goodrich, from which we had been wandering so long, again showed themselves. At our feet, on the shelving banks of the river far below us, are some iron forges and limekilns, the ascending smoke of which produced a singular effect, which we might almost call solemn.

Descending from this grand height, we come to the New Weir, where the river assumed another character. Hitherto it has moved with a tolerably slow, quiet pace, but here it roars and foams over a bed of rocks, and becomes for some hundreds of yards a rapid, or a succession of little falls. The scenery, particularly on the left bank, assumes its grandest characters. These are craggy and weather-beaten walls of sandstone, of gigantic dimension, perpendicular or overhanging, projecting abruptly from amid oaks, and hung with rich festoons of ivy. The rain and storms of ages have beaten and washed them into such fantastic forms, that they appear like some caprice of human art. Castles and towers, amphitheatres and fortifications, battlements and obelisks, mock the wanderer, who fancies himself transported into the ruins of a city of some extinct race. Some of these picturesque masses are at times loosened by the action of the weather, and fall thundering from rock to rock, with a terrific plunge into the river.

During the latter half of the trip from Symond's Yat to Monmouth, rocks and sublimity give place to more gentle declivities, and to mild beauties that partake of the pastoral character. Cattle are sprinkled on green ledges above the river: in some places the meadow shelves down to the brink, allowing the cows to stand and cool themselves in the stream, and flocks of white sheep lend beauty and poetry to the middle distance. The whole valley of the river moreover opens, the hills recede, and the river makes longer reaches.

Monmouth, "the delight of the eye, and the very seat of pleasure," stands near the conflux of the Monnow with the Wye, on a gently rising ground, that throws out the houses like the seats of an amphitheatre, and gives a fine elevated platform for the church with its tall steeple. It is surrounded by smiling declivities and gently-swelling hills, that are mostly covered from the water's edge to the summit, with pleasant little woods, or laid out in corn-fields or pasture-meadows. The interior of picturesque towns is not always the most comfortable. Monmouth, however, has a broad and handsome street, a capacious market-place, and seems clean and neat throughout. The remains of the priory, with an apartment they pretend was the study of that splendid romancer Geoffrey of Monmouth, the old Saxon church of St. Thomas, near the Monnow bridge, and particularly the low, sombre, round-arched interior of that church, will agreeably occupy an hour or two within the town.

From the summit of the Kymin rock, which rises on the left bank of the Wye, and is situated partly in Monmouthshire and partly in Gloucestershire, there is another extensive and beautiful view, of a totally different character from that obtained on Symond's Yat. This variety, indeed, is one of the great charms of the Wye. From Ross to the river's mouth, the character of the scenery is scarcely ever the same for a quarter of a mile. On the centre of the Kymin, overhanging the town of



Coldwell Rocks.

Monmouth and the river, there is a circular pavilion, like an embattled tower, which is made easy of access by means of a walk which winds gently up the acclivity.

A little below the town, the Monnow flows into the Wye with a full stream. For some distance the banks are low, and fine green meadows shelve from the hills to the water-side; and then the banks again become bold, rocks protrude, and woods appear on either side. Troy house, with a solemn forest near it, the romantic church of Penalt, the scattered village of Red-brook, with its iron-forges and its tin-works, White-brook, with its paper-mills, Pen-y-van Hill, Big's Weir-house, with the church and the ruins of the castle of St. Briaval in the distance, are among the beautiful features of this changing picture. In some parts the bed of the river is roughened and straitened by shelves and projecting rocks, which produce ripples, and, here and there, miniature falls and rapids. A barge or two, making their way against the stream, had to tack and manœuvre in a curious manner. In several places these shelves of rock lie right across the river, like artificial weirs, having very little water over them. At Big's Weir, where the current is very rapid, the river eddies over fragments of rock, which leave only a narrow open space for the passage of boats. Near to this place, a new and very graceful bridge, called Big's Weir-bridge, spans the river with a single arch. The road from Chepstow to Monmouth, which runs partly on one side of the river, and partly on the other, is connected by this bridge. From this point a fine bold reach, with Tiddenham-chase hill rising nobly in front, leads to the lovely hamlet of Landogo, which is situated on a small plain on the right bank, tufted with woods, and backed by an amphitheatre of lofty hills. The little church peeps out beautifully from amid the trees upon the river, which there forms a smooth and capacious bay. Taken altogether, this is one of the *prettiest* scenes upon the Wye.

Below this point the Wye becomes a tide-river, and loses one of its great beauties, which is the purity and transparency of its waters.

A little farther, on the left bank of the river, the populous village of Brook's Weir presents a scene where utility unites with beauty. A number of white, comfortable-looking cottages, and elegant little villas, scattered about the hills in the neighborhood, prove the prosperity of the place. Soon after passing Brook's Weir, you round the point of Lyn Weir, and then, at the end of the reach, one sees the glorious ruins of Tintern abbey, and the white-walled village of Tintern, partially embosomed in trees and backed by beautifully-shaped hills, wooded to their summits. Had the Wye nothing else to boast of than Tintern abbey and Chepstow castle, which the German tourist declares to be "the most beautiful ruins in the world," it ought to attract travellers from far and near.

From the length of the nave, the height of the walls, the aspiring form of the pointed arches, and the size of the east window, which closes the perspective, the first impressions are those of grandeur and sublimity. But as these emotions subside, and we descend from the contemplation of the whole to the examination of the parts, we are no less struck with the regularity of the plan, the lightness of the architecture, and the delicacy of the ornaments: we feel that elegance is its characteristic, no less than grandeur, and that the whole is a combination of the beautiful and the sublime.

The church was constructed in the shape of a cathedral, and is an excellent specimen of Gothic architecture in its greatest purity. The roof is fallen in, and the whole ruin is open to the sky, but the shell is entire, and the pillars are standing, except those which divided the nave from the northern aisle, and their situation is marked by the remains of the bases. The four lofty arches which supported the tower, spring high in the air, reduced to narrow rims of stone, yet still preserving their original form. The arches and pillars of the choir and transept are complete; the shapes of all the windows may be still discriminated, and the frame of the west window is in perfect preservation; the design of the tracery is extremely elegant, and when decorated with painted glass, must have produced a fine effect. Critics who censure this window as too broad for its height, do not consider that it was not intended for a particular object, but to harmonize with the general plan; and had the architect diminished the breadth, in proportion to the height, the grand effect of the perspective would have been considerably lessened.

The general form of the east window is entire, but the frame is much dilapidated; it occupies the whole breadth of the choir, and is divided into two large and equal compartments, by a slender shaft, not less than fifty feet in height, which has an



Tintern Abbey.

appearance of singular lightness, and in particular points of view seems suspended in the air.

Nature has added her ornaments to the decorations of art; some of the windows are wholly obscured, others partially shaded with tufts of ivy, or edged with lighter foliage; the tendrils creep along the walls, wind round the pillars, wreath the capitals, or hanging down in clusters, obscure the space beneath.

Instead of dilapidated fragments, overspread with weeds and choked with brambles, the floor is covered with a smooth turf, which, by keeping the original level of the church, exhibits the beauty of its proportions, heightens the effect of the gray stone, gives a relief to the clustered pillars, and affords an easy access to every part. Ornamented fragments of the roof, remains of cornices and columns, rich pieces of sculpture, sepulchral stones, and mutilated figures of monks and heroes, whose ashes repose within these walls, are scattered on the green sward, and contrast present desolation with former splendor.

Although the exterior appearance of the ruins is not equal to the inside view, yet in some positions, particularly to the east, they present themselves with considerable effect. By crossing the ferry, and walking down the stream about half a mile, the ruins assume a new character, and seem to occupy a gentle eminence, and impend over the river, without the intervention of a single cottage to obstruct the view. The grand east window, wholly covered with shrubs, and half mantled with ivy, rises like the portal of a majestic edifice, embowered in wood. Through this opening, and along the vista of the church, the clusters of ivy, which twine round the pillars, or hang suspended from the arches, resemble tufts of trees; while the thick mantle of foliage, seen through the tracery of the west window, forms a continuation of the perspective, and appears like an interminable forest.

A little below Tintern, you come upon Banagor crags, a long, lofty, perpendicular, and most sublime rampart, bare as a wall except where a few shrubs shoot out, opposite to which the river is skirted by narrow slips of rich pasture, rising into wooded acclivities, on which abruptly towers the Wyndcliff, a nearly perpendicular mass of rock, rudely overhung with thickets, stated to be 800 feet high. At this place the Wye turns suddenly round the fertile, smiling peninsula of Lancaut, having the stupendous amphitheatre of Piercefield cliffs on the right bank. The little peninsula, sloping down from Tiddenham chase, ends in pleasant meadows and flats, where a few cottages and a church show themselves. The opposite cliffs start up from the water's edge, looking like enormous buttresses, and here and there throwing out bold, fantastic projections. Twelve of these projecting rocks have been christened by the country people, "the Twelve Apostles," and a thirteenth, which points toward the sky, and has a rude resemblance in shape to a thumb, they call "St. Peter's Thumb." The summit and edge of these cliffs are fringed with the noble woods and plantations of Piercefield; and as we passed them, approaching evening had shed the most beautiful harmonizing shades and hues on their rough sides. Presently the river again turns, and then the grand ruins of Chepstow castle, rising from the very edge of lofty precipices, the bridge, and part of the picturesque town of Chepstow, present themselves in almost magical combination. The ruins look more like the remains of a city than of a single castle, and under certain lights, the eye looking upward from the river does not readily distinguish them from the cliffs on which they stand, or perceive where the rocks end and the walls begin.

The venerable castle loses little of its sublimity on a near view, as its towers, though "decayed and rent," are still lofty, and its frowning walls and battlements in some parts almost entire.

The Romans are supposed to have had a fortress at this commanding point, but nothing of their work, except some of their excellent bricks, built up in the chapel walls, and one or two other walls of the castle, is now visible. The edifice is generally attributed to the Normans, who built it at the end of the eleventh, and improved and enlarged it in the thirteenth century. The styles of successive eras of architecture are visible in different parts of the extensive building, in the windows and doorways, and various accessories, which were added from time to time. In the low, rounded arches, we were reminded of the Saxon and early Norman style. The castle stands in an irregular parallelogram, having the perpendicular cliffs on one side, and a deep moat, with massive walls flanked with towers, on the other sides. The area occupies a very large tract of ground, and is divided into four courts. The grand entrance to the east is a circular arch between two round towers, and this



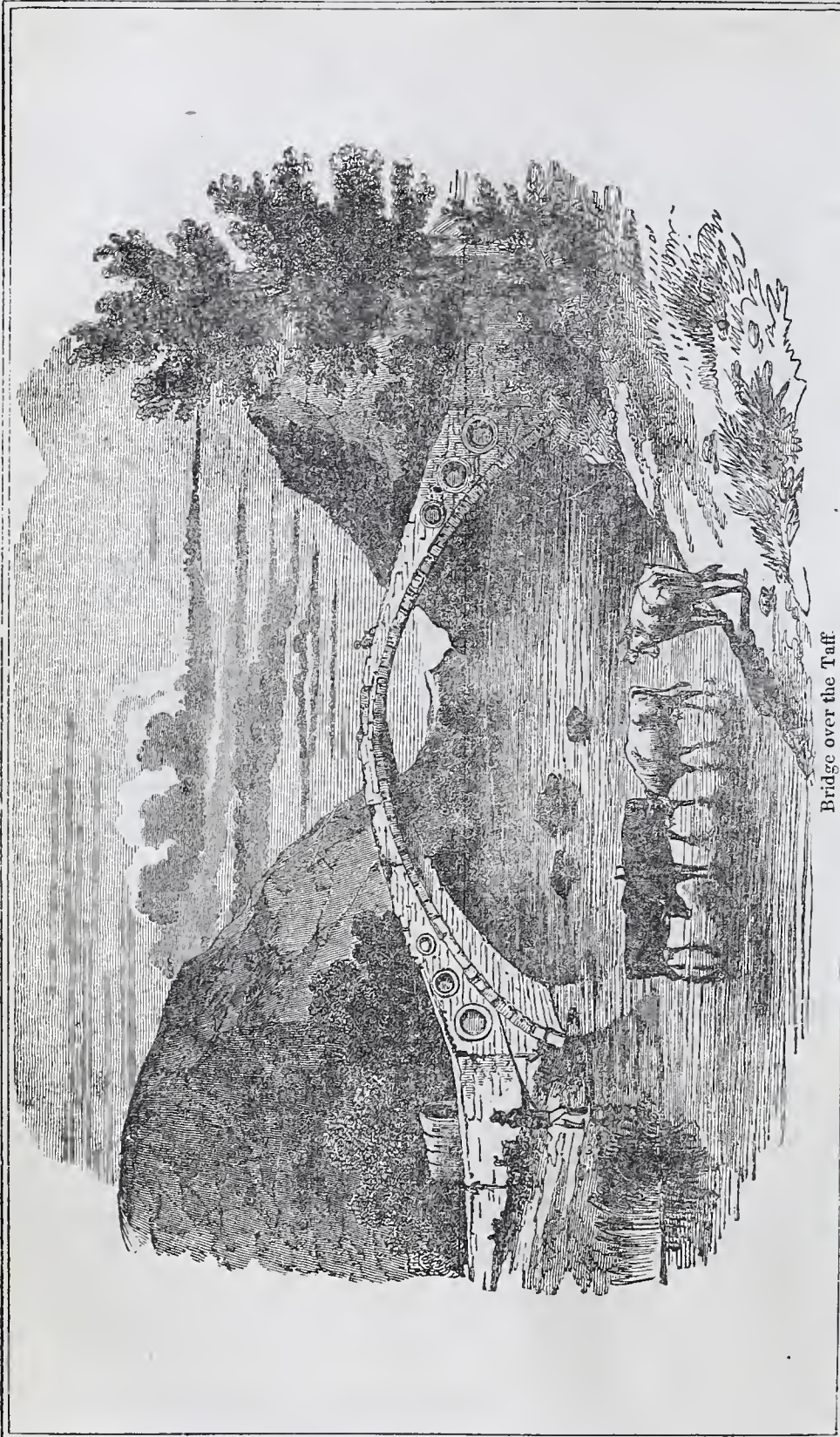
Chepstow Castle.

leads into the first court, which contains the shells of the grand hall, kitchen, and many spacious apartments, retaining a few melancholy vestiges of baronial splendor. A few of these rooms are still inhabited, and the construction of their old chimneys is worthy of attention; they are handsomely decorated on the outside, and the inside is glazed, which prevents the accumulation of soot.

At the southeastern angle of the first court, the round tower, which was formerly the keep, is now always called Harry Marten's tower, from the circumstance of that old republican having passed twenty years of captivity in it. At the western side of the court, near a round tower called the old kitchen, a gate gives access to the second court (now a garden, with pleasant trees in it), at the opposite side of which, another gateway leads into the third court, and to a graceful, but roofless and half-ruined building, commonly called the chapel, wherein, though somewhat mixed up with the old Norman, the fine Gothic style of a later period is beautifully prominent. A staircase ascends from one corner of this court to the battlements and towers, whence a fine view is obtained of the Wye, and part of the estuary of the Severn. A sallyport opens into the fourth or last court, which is the smallest of the four, but shut in by a fine old tower, through which was the western entrance to the castle. The interior of these extensive ruins presents some grand, and several beautiful combinations. Ivy and delicately-colored wild flowers profusely decorate the walls, and as we walked along the battlements under a bright, cheerful sun, the whole scene was rather gentle and agreeable than gloomy and awful.

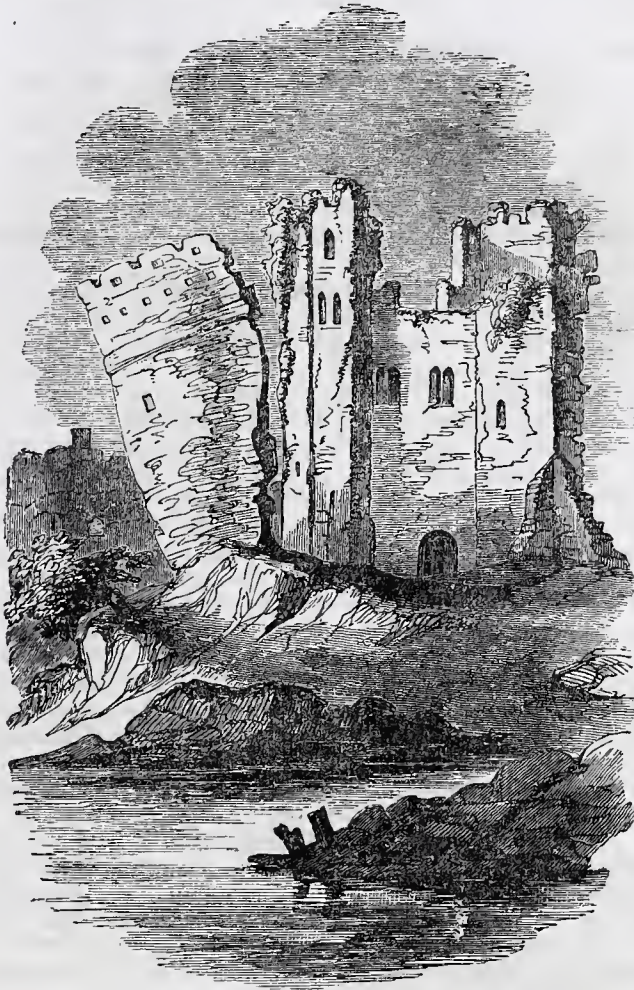
We shall now proceed to notice some other remarkable places in Wales. The river Taff presents in its course many spots of great interest and of picturesque beauty. For about six miles below Merthyr, the vale of Taff is straight, bare, and dull; the more because its mountain stream, which would in its natural state impart beauty and cheerfulness, is drained and polluted by the operations of the mines. We then come to that remarkable and most picturesque bend in the river, called (after an old burying-ground) Quaker's yard. Hence to that grand ravine overhung by the Garth hill, where the Taff issues into the level country, its whole course is varied, picturesque, and richly wooded. A ruined fortress, called Castle Coch, formerly commanded the pass, and still adds dignity to the landscape. Half way from Merthyr to Cardiff, a distance of twenty-four miles, is the remarkable structure called New Bridge (in Welsh *Pont y Pridd*), a single arch spanning the rapid current of the Taff, of one hundred and forty feet span and thirty-five in height (see engraving). It was completed in 1755, by a self-taught country mason, William Edwards. Having obtained credit by his manual skill, and by the ability which he had shown in executing some buildings rather above the common country-work, he undertook, in 1746, at the age of twenty-seven, the bold task of building a bridge over the Taff, at a spot where the river is broad and the banks low. He completed a very light and elegant structure in three arches, which obtained much admiration, and gave security that it should stand for seven years. All mountain rivers are subject to heavy floods, and the Taff in rather an unusual degree. Within three years of the completion of the bridge, a flood occurred of extraordinary height, which carried down trees, hay, &c., before it in such quantities, that they were caught by the piers and formed a dam; behind which the water accumulated to such a height that the bridge at last gave way under its pressure. Edwards then conceived the bold design of spanning the river with a single arch, of the present dimensions, and completed it. But the lowness of the approaches, and the want of natural abutments of firm rock, rendered it necessary to load the spring of the arch on either side with a great mass of masonry; and, before the parapets were finished, the pressure on the haunches drove up the crown of the arch, and it fell in. Unshaken in courage, he renewed the attempt upon the same scale, but lightened the masonry by perforating it with three cylindrical tunnels, nine, six, and three feet in diameter. This expedient succeeded: the bridge has stood unshaken since 1755, and the cylindrical apertures have given, not only stability, but also an air of great lightness and elegance to the structure. It is commonly said, that, up to this time, the largest stone arch in the world was that of the Rialto, at Venice, ninety-eight feet in span. It appears, however, that one of the arches of the bridge of Narni, a Roman work, is one hundred and forty-two feet, and an old bridge over the Allier, in the department of Haute Loire, in France, one hundred and eighty-one feet wide.

A few miles southeast of the bridge, in a deep valley, is Caerphilly, celebrated for its castle: the most extensive and one of the grandest ruins in Britain. The great



Bridge over the Taff.

gateway, flanked by two enormous circular towers, and the hall, an elegant Gothic room seventy feet by thirty, are in the best preservation; but the walls with their vaulted corridors yet stand, and may still be traversed to a considerable extent. The "Leaning Tower" is a shattered fragment of a round tower. Above, near half the circumference still remains; below, it seems to rest on a small portion of its base.



The Leaning Tower of Caerphilly.

It hangs eleven and one half feet out of the perpendicular, and is reported to be between seventy and eighty feet high. This castle is of very ancient date. In the reign of Edward II., it belonged to his favorites, the Spencers, and endured a long siege from the revolted barons. An explosion, caused by throwing water upon iron melted in a furnace at the base, is said to have reduced the leaning tower to its present state. It is difficult to conceive how any wall, so convulsed, could remain in its present position; yet, on the whole, this perhaps is as plausible an explanation as has been given of this singular appearance. The immense blocks of shattered masonry which still cumber the interior indicate a violent ruin, and show the excellence of the ancient cement.

The wild-looking chain of hills, which, extending from the estuary of the Mawe to that of the Dwyrdd, separating this elevated mountain plain from the sea, contains many hidden beauties; but these are to be sought entirely on the western declivity. The southern portion of this tract, nearest to Barmouth, has already been spoken of; but its most remarkable scenery is to be found in two contiguous passes, from Harlech inland, which run parallel, and within two miles perhaps of direct distance from

each other. The southernmost is called Drws Ardudwy (the door or pass of the land by sea). This hollow, seen from the east, has indeed the appearance of a vast portal cleft in the hill, and by its size and singular appearance is distinctly recognised from the summit of Cader Idris. The ill-tracked way which leads through this pass quits the Tan y Bwlch road about eight miles from Dolgelle, apparently just in front of the opening, and hard by a good-sized stream, which seems to issue from it. Many parts of the level moor are boggy, and it is not very easy to distinguish the proper track. On reaching the hillside we meet a hard path, said to be a Roman road leading inland from Harlech. An hour and a quarter, or rather more, will be sufficient to attain the head of the pass, which is on a very large scale, dark and stern, almost uncheered by vegetation, and abundantly bestrown with the shattered fragments of its impending rocks. Few scenes in Wales surpass it in the grandeur of desolation; of the gentler beauties it has none. But these appear as soon as we clear the close defile in proceeding toward Harlech: the valley widens and becomes more fertile; and the latter part of the way, as seen under the misty light of a summer moon, is of great beauty.

There are many British remains round Harlech—cromlechs, pillar-stones, and circles—some of which may easily be seen in the way to or from Drws Ardudwy, or Cwm Bychan. To ascend the latter valley, it is necessary to return some distance south of Harlech. It is well worth while to do so, for there are few spots in the whole of Wales which unite wildness with great loveliness in so remarkable a degree. The earlier part of the walk from Harlech lies through a pleasant open country. Near the entrance of the glen itself there is a tarn, called Llyn Cwm Bychan, a beautiful piece of water, from the edge of which rises the steep, black rock called Carreg y Saeth (the rock of the arrow). Proceeding from this spot, which commands a most exquisite view of the whole glen, we soon pass the lake, and arrive at the beginning of the steep ascent which leads to Bwlch Tyddiad, the pass over the hills toward Trawsfynydd. From the head of the lake to the top of the pass, will occupy an hour or more of hard walking. After ascending a good way, in passing through a gate in a stone-wall, we come on what is little expected in this wild place, a road, and that of very singular construction. It is a narrow foot or horse path, not above a yard wide, made of broad flat stones, laid so as to form regular steps where the ascent is steep, and bordered by pieces laid edgewise to form a curbstone. This, like the one on the hillside near Drws Ardudwy, is believed to be of Roman construction, leading inland from the station at Harlech, but it is in far better preservation, being indeed so perfect in many places, and for considerable distances, that it is hardly possible to believe fifteen centuries to have elapsed since the empire of those who made it passed away. There is no such vast chasm here as in the neighboring pass: the mountain range is crossed nearly at its full height; the character, therefore, of the ascent is altogether different. It lies up a light and cheerful hillside, with frequent views over the lovely vale which we have quitted, richly clothed with heather and other native mountain plants, and varied by startling crags, which increase in height and grandeur as we near the summit. Here also the character is different; instead of being enclosed in a gloomy hollow, we are on the mountain-top, with the free mountain air blowing delightfully over us, and an extensive and magnificent view, bounded on all sides by the loftiest hills in Wales, from Snowdon on the north, round by the Arennigs and Arrans to Cader Idris on the south. But all beauty ceases when we have descended but a short way on the eastern side, and the path across the plain toward Trawsfynydd is wearisome and rather hard to find. From the summit to the Dolgelle road, about two miles from the village, will take near an hour and a half. The whole distance from Harlech by this circuitous route may perhaps be sixteen or seventeen miles, and Tan y Bwlch is six miles farther; by the coast road it is but ten miles.

Mr. Pennant, who visited this spot about 1780, has given a pleasant account of the life of a retired Welsh country gentleman of that day, which is worth quoting, as the description of a class of persons and manners now extinct. He says:—

“I was tempted by my fellow-traveller to visit a near relation of his in his ancient territories of Cwm Bychan—the venerable Evan Llwyd, who, with his ancestors, boast of being lords of these rocks at least since the year 1100. The worthy representative of this long line gave me the most hospitable reception, and in the style of an ancient Briton. He welcomed us with ale and potent beer, to wash down the *Coch yr Wden*, or hung goat, and the cheese, compounded of the milk of the cow

and sheep. The family lay in their whole store of winter provisions, being inaeessible a great part of the season by reason of snow. Here they have lived for many generations without bettering or lessening their income—without noisy fame, but without any of its embittering attendants.

“The mansion is a true specimen of an ancient seat of a gentleman of Wales. The furniture rude: the most remarkable were the great oatmeal chests, which held the essential part of the provisions.

“The territories dependant on the mansion extend about four miles each way, and consist of a small tract of meadow, a pretty lake swarming with trout, a little wood, and very much rock; but the whole forms a most august scenery. The naked mountains envelop his vale and lake, like an immense theatre. The meadows are divided by a small stream, and are bounded on one side by the lake, on the other by his woods, which skirt the foot of the rocks, and through which the river runs, and beyond them tumbles from the heights in a series of cataracts. He keeps his whole territories in his own hands, but distributes his lands among the Havadwys, or summer dairy-houses (like the Swiss chalets in the upper hills), for the convenience of attending his flocks and herds. His ambition once led him to attempt draining his lake, in order to extend his landed property; but alas! he only gained a few acres of rushes and reeds; so wisely bounded his desires, and saved a beautiful piece of water. Stools and roots of firs of vast size are frequently found near the lake.

“Among the mountains which guard the Cwm is one called *Carreg y Saeth*, on whose verge is a great *Maen Hir* and *Carnedd*. *Saeth* signifies an arrow: so probably the ancient sportsmen here took their stand to watch the passing of the deer, which formerly abounded in these parts. Nor have they long been extinct. A person of the last generation informed my host, that he had seen eighteen at once grazing in the meadow.”

The road from Harlech to Tan y Bwleth is very pleasant. Half way we pass two small pools, Llyn Teewyn isa (lower), and Llyn Teewyn ucha (upper). Pennant describes the former as being filled with water-lilies, and says that the crags of shivering slate which overhang the latter were enlivened by flocks of milk-white goats. These ancient denizens of the country are now scarcely ever to be seen. About a mile farther, and the same distance from Maentwrog, is Pont Velin-rhyd (the bridge of the yellow ford). This stream issues from a dark narrow valley, and forms two fine cascades, the highest of which may be distant perhaps one mile and a half from the road: it is called Rhaiadr Du (the black fall), a name which hardly expresses its character; for it is light, cheerful, and elegant. The height is considerable, but the stream curves in its descent, so that it is difficult to command a view of the whole at once: it is received into a large basin, with richly-wooded sides. The lower, called the Raven fall, is closer, and of sterner character. Maentwrog lies about a mile and a half farther. This village has its name from the stone of Twrog, a British saint of the seventh century, which stands in the churchyard at the north-west corner of the church.

The beauties of the vale of Festiniog have been celebrated by all tourists, from Lord Lyttleton downward. It is indeed a lovely spot, well watered, richly wooded, and of varied surface, with enough of majesty and wildness in the mountain summits which bound the view, to enhance the value of the softness and fertility, in which this excels perhaps every other of the Welsh valleys. The village of Festiniog lies three miles or more from the head of the estuary, and affords a more central halting place than Tan y Bwleth. About half a mile from the inn are the falls of the Cyn-fael—the lower about forty feet in height, where the river rushes in a broad stream over a shelving rock; the upper, more extensive and of grander character, is broken into three steps, and darkly shadowed by overhanging trees. The rocky scenery of the river is very fine. Between the falls is a columnar crag, called Hugh Lloyd's pulpit, because a worthy of that name took advantage of this impregnable position in the middle of running waters, to preach a sermon to the devil. Under Moelwyn, to the north of the valley, lies a wild mountain glen, Cwm Morthin, well deserving of a visit, and the hills may be crossed to Pont Aberglaslyn from the head of the valley. Pennant, who took this line on horseback, speaks of the path as unusually hazardous, but there can be no difficulty on foot. East of Festiniog, on the road toward Yspytty Evan, Mr. Roscoe mentions a glen and fall called Rhaiadr Cwm, a wild cataract descending from the upland regions in a dark ravine, by many successive leaps. It must be a grand specimen of the ruder sort of landscape, if the pencil of



Hugh Lloyd's Pulpit.

his artist has not exaggerated its features. The roads which cross the mountain tract toward Llanrwst and Bala have been noticed already.

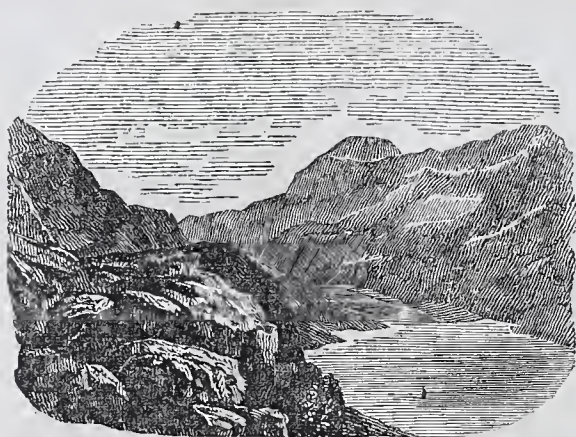
West of Tan y Bwlch inn, on a lofty eminence, stands Tan y Bwlch hall, situated among extensive woods and in beautiful grounds, which, by the obliging permission of the proprietor, may be conveniently visited on the way to Beddgelert. Rhododendrons and other exotics here attain to unusual size and beauty. Two miles from Beddgelert, at Pont Aberglaslyn, we pass into Caernarvonshire, and enter a defile, which has neither companion nor rival in any part of the island: the refusal of the Hessian auxiliaries to enter the pass of Killicrankie, would have been quite as natural, or even more so, here. The hills which environ the vale of Beddgelert are cleft down seven or eight hundred feet, nearly to the tide level, just leaving room for the clear and powerful stream, along the bank of which a road has been formed, with great labor in the mountain side. Dark, steep, and craggy, with hardly the appearance of vegetation, a scene more impressive, especially in the gloom of evening, can rarely be found. Along the western bank of the river is continued the road toward Tremadoc and Harlech, across the estuary of Traeth Mawr. The former town is of recent origin, situated on land reclaimed from the sea, and below the level of high-water: it takes its name from its founder, the late Mr. Madocks, a gentleman of fortune in this neighborhood, who carried into the effect the idea, proposed even so far back as 1625, of embanking these two estuaries, and recovering a vast tract of fruitful land from the sea. It is stated by Mr. Roscoe that 9,000 acres have been thus redeemed from the sea, of which 5,000 are brought into cultivation. And in place of the former dangerous and inconvenient route across the sands, where the unwary traveller was liable to be surprised by the tides, which flow with great rapidity, the embankment forms a safe and short communication for horse or foot passengers between the neighborhood of Harlech and the coast of Caernarvonshire. To those who wish to visit the promontory of Llyn, as that remarkable horn is called, which projects in a circular sweep between the bays of Cardigan and Caernarvon, the best route is by Penmorfa and Crickeith. There is little, however, to attract the traveller toward this division of the country, either in natural scenery or architectural antiquities, though the isle of Bardsey, lying off the extreme point, contained a monastery of great reputed sanctity, and once boasted the graves of 20,000 saints.

From Beddgelert to Caernarvon (twelve miles) the road is far less interesting. It ascends Nant Colwyn, passes at a considerable height over the western range of

Traeth Mawr.



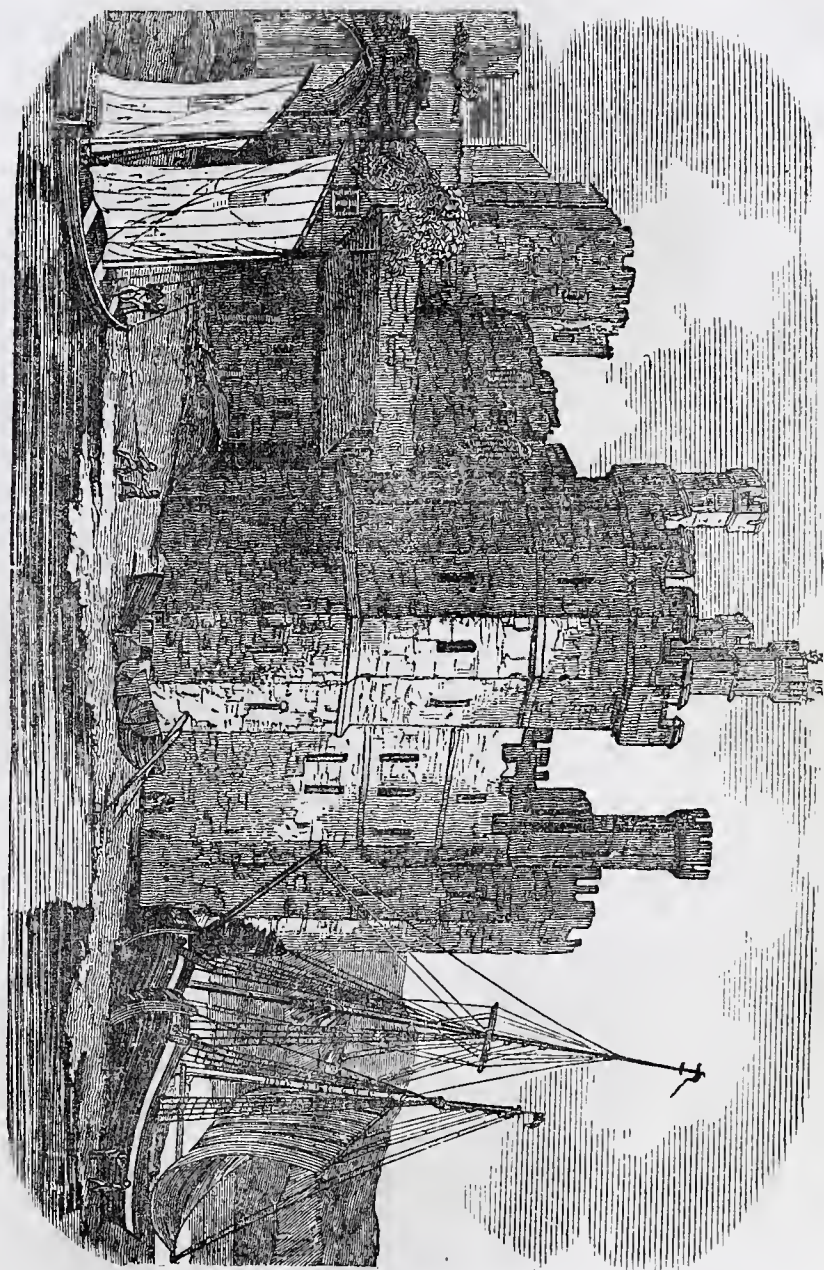
Snowdon, and descends by Llyn Cywellyn and the stream which issues therefrom. After passing Llyn y Cader, a small pool about three miles on the way, a hill-road to the left leads to the Nantlle pools, from which Wilson's celebrated picture of Snowdon was taken. They lie at some distance, but it may be worth while for the pedestrian to diverge from the high road for a mile or more, to the head of the pass, whence a fine view of these small lakes, and of the country beyond them, may be had. Llyn Cywellyn is a large piece of water, grandly surmounted by the heights of Snowdon. The first portion of the descent, for about a mile, is striking; afterward the road is dull, until we reach the neighborhood of Caernarvon.



View of Snowdon, from Llanberis.

This town stands on the right bank of the river Seiont, which issues from the lakes of Llanberis. It is well paved and lighted, and in appearance and convenience superior to most Welsh towns. It is of considerable resort as a bathing-place. The ancient walls and gates are still remaining. The noble castle, built by Edward I., is the wonder of the place. It occupies a space of more than six acres, on the west side of the town, on the verge of the Menai, or rather of the estuary of the Seiont. Its lofty walls are strengthened with octagonal towers, of which the most remarkable is the Eagle tower, so called from a stone figure on the battlements, which is believed to be of Roman workmanship, brought from the neighboring station of Segontium. A small apartment, measuring only about twelve feet by eight, is still shown at Caernarvon castle, as that in which Edward II. first saw the light. It is in the Eagle tower, and can only be entered by a door raised high above the ground, and the ascent to which is over a drawbridge. There is a fireplace in the room, but it must have been, in its best days, a dark and comfortless chamber, and it is painful to suppose that the excellent Eleanor of Castile should, at such a time, have been limited to the accommodations of so miserable an abode. If it was deemed necessary, for reasons of state policy, that she should be conveyed to Wales when about to give birth to her child, her banishment to a strange, hostile, and half savage land, little needed to have had its severities aggravated by imprisonment in such a dungeon. It ought to be added, however, that notwithstanding the tradition of the place, there is much reason to doubt if the apartment in question was really that inhabited on this occasion by Queen Eleanor. It is, perhaps, more probable that she occupied the central room of the tower, which is large and commodious, and to which this may be regarded as merely a closet.

The vast pile of Caernarvon castle stands on an elevated and rocky site, in the northwest quarter of the town, overlooking the Menai strait on the one hand, and with Snowdon and the other mountains of that range fronting it at no great distance on the other. It is nearly surrounded by the sea on three of its sides, and a moat has, in former times, been drawn round the fourth. The whole is surrounded by a wall, defended at intervals by round towers. The area enclosed within this fortification is in shape an irregular oblong, and is of great extent. It was formerly divided into two courts, the outer and the inner; but, although the wall itself is still tolerably entire, the buildings in the interior are now in most places greatly decayed,



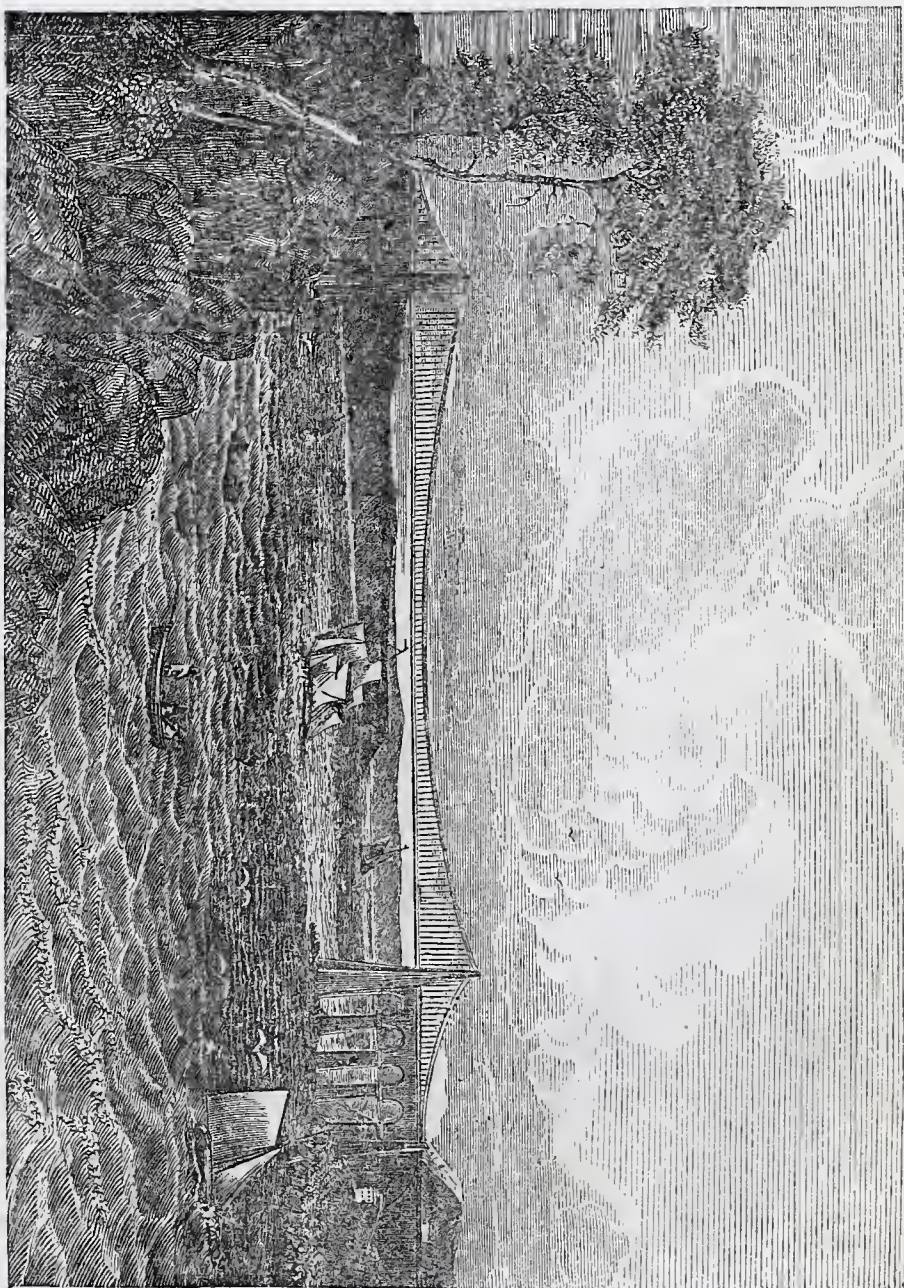
Caernarvon Castle.

and in some are mere heaps of ruins. There are two principal gates, the one facing the east, the other the west.

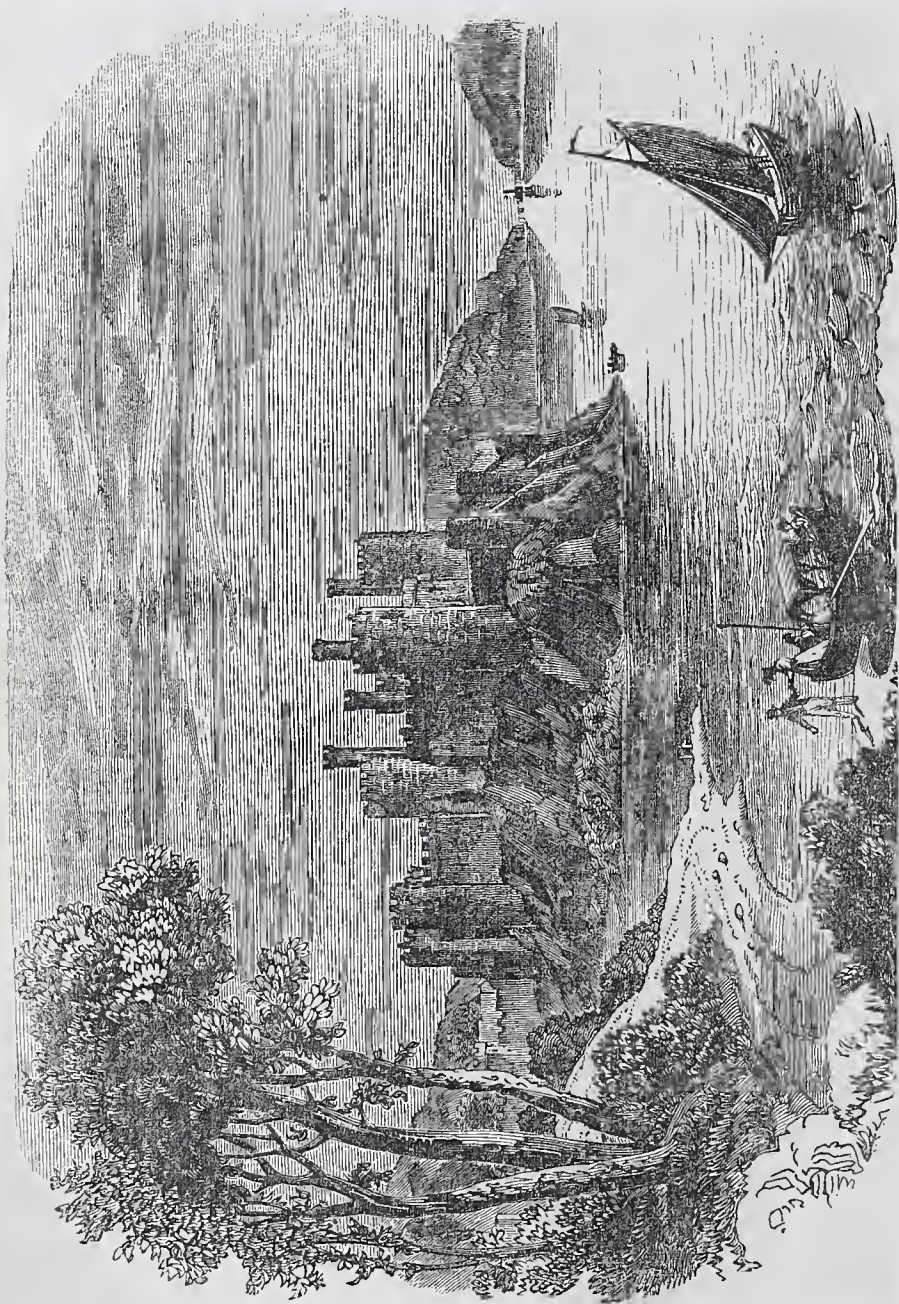
Beside the Eagle tower, and that over the eastern entrance, over the gateway, in which is a statue of Edward I., armed with a dagger, there are numerous smaller towers, all angularly-shaped, but of various figures, some being five-sided, others six-sided, and others having eight sides. The walls, which are pierced with narrow slits, or loop-holes, are in general nearly eight feet thick; but the thickness of those of the Eagle tower is not less than nine feet and a half. The only staircase that is not in ruins is that in the Eagle tower. The view from the top of this tower, over the Menai, its banks, and the Isle of Anglesey, is very beautiful. A fine terrace extends from the castle walls, along the banks of the Menai.

From Caernarvon to Bangor (nine miles) the road runs generally at no great distance from the Menai, and commands a beautiful succession of landscapes. About half way, the woods of Plas Newydd, the seat of the marquis of Anglesey, on the opposite shore, will attract attention. Near the house is the largest and the finest cromlech remaining in Wales. The upper stone, according to Pennant's measurement, is twelve feet seven inches long, twelve feet broad, and four feet thick. A smaller one stands close by it. About seven miles from Caernarvon, a road to the left leads to the Menai bridge, one of the most magnificent specimens of engineering talent yet in existence. It was constructed under the direction of the late Mr. Telford. In 1818, this gentleman was surveying the improvements which could be effected on the extensive line of roads from London to Holyhead—the point of the Welsh coast nearest to Ireland. Holyhead is situated in the island of Anglesey, which is separated from Caernarvonshire by a celebrated strait, or arm of the sea, named the Menai, through which the tide flows with great velocity, and, from local circumstances, in a very peculiar manner. The intercourse of the inhabitants with the opposite portion of Wales was thus circumscribed. There were five or six ferries, but the navigation was often difficult, and sometimes dangerous. One of the staple productions of the island is cattle, and they were generally compelled to swim across the strait. The importance of obtaining more rapid means of intercourse with Ireland, occasioned Mr. Telford strongly to direct his attention to the possibility of throwing a bridge across the Menai. The obstacles were a rapid stream, with high banks. To have erected a bridge of the usual construction would have obstructed the navigation; besides, the erection of piers in the bed of the sea was impracticable. Mr. Telford therefore recommended the construction of a suspension bridge, which was completed in 1826. The bridge is partly of stone and partly of iron, and consists of seven stone arches, exceeding in magnitude every work of the kind in the world. They connect the land with the two main piers, which rise fifty-three feet above the level of the road, over the top of which the chains are suspended, each chain being 1,714 feet from the fastenings in the rock. The top masts of the first three-masted vessel which passed under the bridge were nearly as high as those of a frigate, but they cleared twelve feet and a half below the level of the roadway. The suspending power of the chains is calculated at 2,016 tons; the total weight of each chain is 121 tons.

Conway, nine miles from Aber and fourteen from Bangor, is a very singular and interesting old town, situated on the declivity of a hill, sloping toward the estuary of the river from which it receives its name. From without it is extremely beautiful; the ancient walls and towers are still entire, and give it, especially as seen from the eastern side of the river, where the whole circuit of them is seen at once, a most antique and warlike look. Neither are the streets wanting in their share of picturesque effect. Of the gates, the handsomest is that on the Llanrwst road. The castle, however, is apt to divert the attention from these minor attractions. Like Caernarvon castle, it was built by Edward I., and it has been supposed, by the same architect. It excels Caernarvon castle as much in beauty of situation and general picturesque effect, as it is inferior to it in architectural embellishment. The walls and towers are in very tolerable preservation. None of the staircases are perfect; but a convenient wooden ladder gives easy access, even for ladies, to the top of the walls, of which a complete circuit may be made, so as to obtain a correct idea of the plan of the building, and of its external defences. They also command fine and varied views of the surrounding country. Of the building itself, the best views are those from the mound beyond the bridge, and from the creek on the south side of the castle, which is the one we have given. On that side there is a curious proof of the



Bridge across the Merri



Conway Castle.

strength of the cement used in building the edifice. In quarrying for stone in the last century, the foundation of one of the round towers was so undermined that it gave way, and about half the circumference of the base has fallen in, the upper part of the structure, upheld by the tenacity of its parts, remaining perfect. The chasm snows like an irregular arch.

The vale of Conway is one of the most celebrated portions of Wales. Broad, rich, and beautiful in its lower part, it contracts and becomes bolder and more romantic near Llanrwst. Mr. Roscoe gives it the preference not only over the vale of Clywd, which doubtless it deserves, but over that of Llangollen, in which we hardly agree with him. On the Denbighshire side, the hills are neither lofty nor bold; to the west lies a large tract of rugged mountain, bounded by the deep vale of Nantfrangon, through which the Shrewsbury and Holyhead road is conducted from Capel Curig to Bangor. The principal summits on this elevated tract are Carnedd David (3,429 feet), and Carnedd Llewellyn (3,471 feet), not much inferior to Snowdon in height. These rise abruptly from Nantfrangon. East of these summits a considerable tract of undulating moor extends, containing many small lakes, which send their waters as tributaries to the Conway. One of these, issuing from Llyn Geirionydd, the most northerly of the lakes, crosses the road at Pont Porthlwyd, issuing from a fine wild-looking ravine.

Between Bangor and Capel Curig (fifteen miles) the Irish road passes through Nantfrangon (the beaver's hollow). Here, as in many other parts of Wales, the former existence of that long extinct animal is recorded in the name of their haunt. The first four or five miles from Bangor are cultivated, and very pretty: the road then enters the mountains, on the borders of which, on the west side of the valley, lie the immense slate quarries which have proved so lucrative to the lords of Penrhyn castle. They are well worth a visit. The immense size of the excavations, the picturesque forms which the rock assumes, the seemingly hazardous positions and employments of the workmen, the machinery, the energy and activity prevailing over this immense manufactory, the ease and precision with which the rude material is reduced into plates of all dimensions, from tombstones to writing slates, render these works a singularly curious and attractive spectacle.

As the road advances up the valley, the mountains become loftier, and the glen more savage and more contracted. To the east the Carnedds rise with a high steep slope, their summits being invisible from this part of the road. To the west an extensive tract of hill separates this valley from Nantberis, contracting in breadth as it advances to the southward, and rising, toward the head of Nantfrangon, into the lofty summits of the Glyders and Trivaen. About ten miles from Bangor, Nantfrangon is abruptly closed by a steep rocky barrier, which extends completely across it, from the Glyders to the opposite hill. In Pennant's time, the way from the upper valley into Nantfrangon was, he says, by the most dreadful horse-path in Wales, worked in the rudest manner into steps for a great length. Now the finest road in the island traverses the same valley, attaining the upper level by a gradual ascent, the whole of which is trotting ground for the mail. At the top of this ascent the upper valley turns sharp to the east: it is a level tract, principally occupied by Llyn Ogwen, from which the river Ogwen issues in a full and rapid stream, crosses the road, and immediately begins its descent to the vale below in a cataract broken into three distinct falls. These are called after the name of the pass, the Benglog falls; the name signifies a skull, and is thus applied probably from some fancied likeness of the naked and ghastly crags which enclose this stupendous scene. The falls are collectively of great height, devoid of wood, simple, and stern in character. They lose but little, however, in the absence of those minor elegances which form a principal attraction of many cascades: the rich feathering of birch and mountain-ash would be scarce noticed here, where all is on the largest scale. The glen is wide, its sides steep and high; the rocky wall, down which the river foams in full view, in a succession of bold leaps, is itself no inconsiderable elevation; while behind and far above, the Glyders circle, the dale-head, with the darkest and most awful precipice in the whole region of Snowdon. Other waterfalls may be thought more pleasing, but we doubt whether any in Wales be so grand as these.

After leaving Llyn Ogwen, famous for trout, the road traverses a level moor, attractive only from the grand outlines of the surrounding mountains. A very trifling ascent parts the waters tributary to the Ogwen from those of the Llugwy, which is soon met coming down from its source in the hills above, and followed closely by



Pont y Pair.

the Irish road as far as Bettws, near its junction with the Conway. The inn of Capel Curig lies half a mile off the great road, in the direction of Beddgelert. About a mile further on, the Llugwy forms three step-like cascades of some height, which present a grand appearance from the road when the stream is full. Here begin the chief beauties of this short but very lovely vale. A little further on lies Rhaiadr Wennol (the fall of the swallow). A fantastical building, planted on the very point of a tall conical hill, immediately above the fall, indicates its position from a distance; and the upper fall is partly visible from the road, which runs close by. It consists of three divisions, seemingly each from twenty to thirty feet in height; but the river, if we recollect right, falls in a slanting direction, so as to render it difficult to obtain a complete view of the whole. The breadth of the stream and the body of water are considerable, the rocks grand, and the woods rich and beautiful; and there is a mixture of cheerfulness and sublimity in the whole scene, which renders this one of the most attractive waterfalls in the country. The vale continues to wear its rich and romantic aspect to Bettws, where it unites with the vale of Conway. Half a mile further the road crosses that river by a noble iron bridge, one hundred feet in span, and ascends its eastern bank toward Cernioge and Corwen. The road to Llanrwst crosses the Llugwy by the singular bridge called Pont y Pair, consisting of five arches, based on the bare rocky bed of the stream. Beneath it the river forms a cascade of no considerable height, but very striking from its rapidity and volume. In general one arch is amply sufficient for the passage of the waters, which have excavated a deep and narrow chasm in the rock. But the breadth of the bare rock testifies to the extent of the stream in time of flood; and at such seasons the rush of waters is said to be most grand and imposing.

A range of hills, of which Snowdon is the highest (3,570 feet), traverses North Wales from south to north, terminating at Baumaris bay in the tremendous steep of Penmanmawr, whose hanging fragments threaten to bury him who travels by the difficult path which has been formed along its almost perpendicular sides. This hilly district comprehends a few tarns, or mountain lakelets, full of delicious fish. The general bleakness is delightfully relieved by the intervening vales, the largest of which is that of Clwyd, in Denbighshire, twenty miles long by about four or five in breadth, and presenting a brilliant picture of fertility. Among the lesser vales, the most famed for beauty is that of Llangollen, "where the Dee, winding through cultivated and pastoral scenes, presents at every step a varying landscape." Festiniog, in which a number of streams unite to form a little river, amid verdant and wooded scenes, is also celebrated by tourists.

Logging stones, of which there are several in Wales, are explained by natural causes. The largest is one situated upon a cliffy promontory, near the Land's End. It is a mass seventeen feet in length, of irregular form, and believed to be about ninety tons in weight, resting by a slight protuberance upon the upper surface of the cliff, and so nicely poised, that a push from the hand, or even the force of the wind, causes it to vibrate. It appears that these logging stones are simply prismatic masses of the rock, which have chanced to be left in their present situation after adjoining masses of a similar character had been removed.

CHAPTER XI.

ANTIQUITIES.

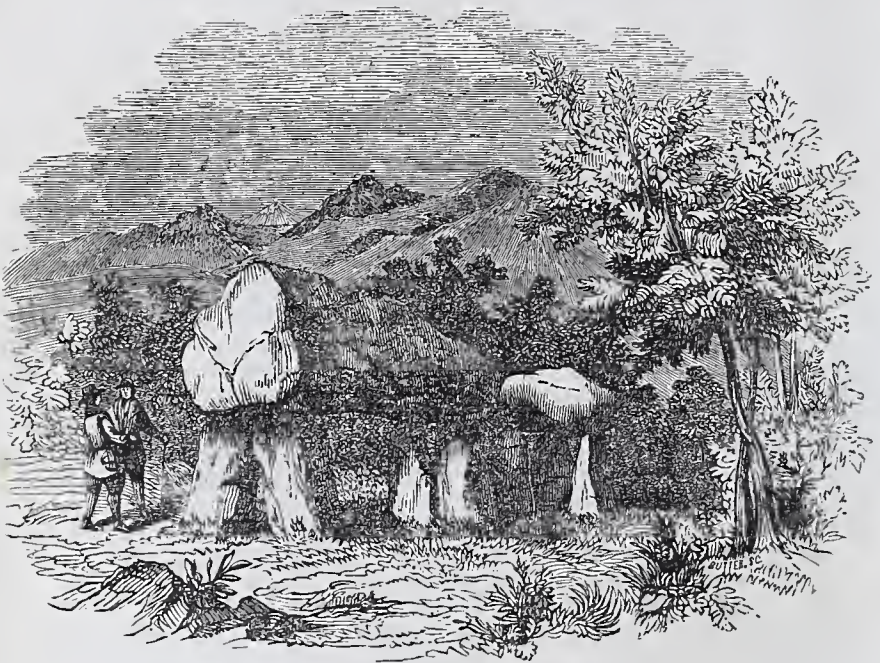
PERHAPS the earliest objects of antiquity in England are the *barrows* or *tumuli*, with which the Britons were accustomed to cover their dead. Several of these still exist. *Druidical remains* rank perhaps next in point of antiquity. The most simple of these are the *cromlechs* and *kist-vaens*.

Cromlechs are large stones placed in the fashion of a table, but in an inclining position, upon others smaller, commonly three in number. The reason for this number of supporters is ingeniously conjectured by Borlase to be, that it was found easier to

place and fix securely an incumbent weight on three supporters than on four or more ; because in the latter case all the four supporters must be exactly level at the top, and the under surface of the stone must also be planed and true, in order to bring the weight to bear exactly on every supporter ; whereas, three supporters obviate occasion for this nicety, the incumbent weight easily inclining itself and resting on any three props, although not exactly level at the top ; and accordingly, we find the covering stone not horizontal, but more or less shelving, the weight naturally subsiding to the point where the lowest supporter is found. Unequal supporters would also be more easily procured than those of the same height.

The name cromlech is interpreted to mean an *inclining stone*, from the British words *crom*, bowed, and *llech*, a broad flat stone.

Cromlechs are sometimes found isolated, but more usually in the centre of, or in some other way connected with, the druidical circles. When found in this situation, an upright stone is often standing near. For examples of these cromlechs, see the accompanying engraving, which represents the two most considerable of this class of monuments remaining in Great Britain. They are at Plas Newydd, in Anglesea.



Cromlechs at Plas Newydd.

The upper stone of one is twelve feet seven inches long, twelve feet broad, and four feet thick, supported by five tall stones. The other, but barely separated from the first, is almost a square of five feet and one half, supported by four stones. These are not only the most magnificent cromlechs, but the highest from the ground, for a middle-sized horse may easily pass under the largest. It is seen, however, that they do not afford the usual characteristic of *three* supporters.

Concerning the use of these cromlechs there has been much controversy. Borlase and others contend that they were sepulchral monuments. It is true that human remains, ashes, bones, have been found under some of them ; but seeing that the human sacrifices by the Druids were notorious, these appearances might equally belong to them as altars or sepulchres. It is even possible that entire human bodies should be deposited there under peculiar circumstances, as a particularly honorable place of sepulture. In many no such remains have been found ; and Sir R. C. Hoare records a remarkable example (in a field on the road from Newport to Fishguard) of five kist-vaens placed in a circle, with a cromlech in the centre, and an outer circle of upright stones. Bones, charcoal, etc., were found under each of the kist-vaens, but none under the cromlech. This, under all the circumstances of allocation, is a remarkable testimony that cromlechs were not sepulchres in the primary intention,

although, under certain circumstances, corpses may have been deposited beneath them. Besides, the forms of many of them are wholly unsuited to sepulchres. Some of them stand on the unbroken rock.

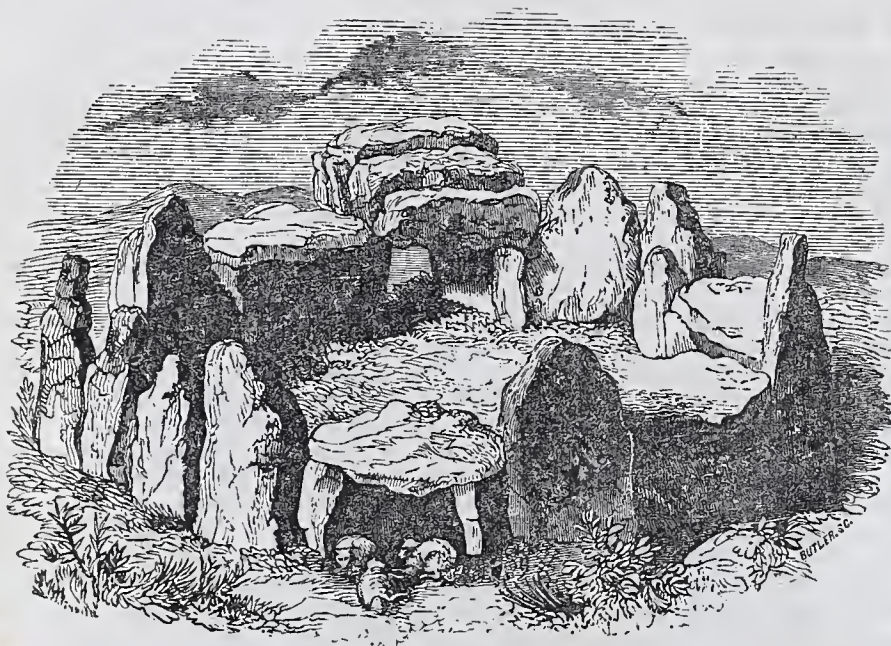
The positive evidence that cromlechs were altars, is far stronger than even the negative testimonies that they were not sepulchres. Indeed, if they were not sepulchres, it almost follows necessarily that they were altars, as it is difficult to conceive any other purpose for which they could be designed. Besides, it is of some weight that all the traditions associated with them, and all the usages which in some remote quarters have remained connected with them, ascribe to them the character of altars. They are thus designated by Holinshed, who, after mentioning places "compassed about with great stones, round like a ring," adds, "but toward the south was one mightie stone, farre greater than all the rest, pitched up in manner of an altar, whereon their priests might offer sacrifices in honor of their gods." In the north, where the ideas connected with the several old monuments of stone have been longer preserved than in this country, the cromlechs which they have are still believed to have been altars. In that very instructive book, "Mallet's Northern Antiquities," we find the following passage: "Although we want the greater part of the monuments which might instruct us in that (primitive) stage of their religion, the traces of it are not yet entirely destroyed. We find at this day, here and there, in Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, in the middle of a plain, or upon some little hill, altars, around which they assembled to offer sacrifices and to assist at other religious ceremonies. The greater part of these altars are raised upon a little hill, either natural or artificial. Three long pieces of rock, set upright, serve as a basis for a great flat stone, which forms the table of the altar. There is commonly a cavity under the altar, which might be intended to receive the blood of the victims; and they never fail to find stones suitable for striking fire scattered round it, for no other fire but such as was struck forth with a flint was suitable for so holy a purpose. Sometimes these rural altars were constructed in a more magnificent manner; a double range of enormous stones surround the altar and the little hill on which it is erected. In Zealand we see one of this kind. Men would even now be afraid to undertake such a work, notwithstanding the assistance of all the mechanic powers, which in those times they wanted. What redoubles the astonishment is, that stones of that size are rarely to be seen throughout the island, and that they must have been brought from a great distance. What labor and perseverance must then have been bestowed upon these vast, rude monuments, which are unhappily more durable than those of the fine arts. But men in all ages have been persuaded, that they could not pay greater honor to the Deity than by making for him (if I may so express it) a kind of strong bulwarks—in executing prodigies of labor, in consecrating immense riches. . . . At Ephesus, they displayed their devotion by laying out all the treasures of Greece and Asia.' The Goths, whose bodily strength was all their riches, showed their zeal by rolling enormous rocks to the summits of hills."

Olaus Wormius also regards all the various northern cromlechs as altars of different forms. In the north of Europe these are still called *blod*, that is, blood-stones, indicating their ancient use.

Even subsisting usages support this appropriation. Mr. Downes, speaking of an immense Cromlech at Albersdorf, in the confines of Holstein, says that a well-informed man acquainted him "that the Cromlech was an altar for sacrifice; and that there was another in the village of Bedel, near the river Elbe, *surrounded with oaks*, in a garden; and that it was customary to offer sacrifices upon these cromlechs, before a person began ploughing, and before he was married; that no one entered this grove without making a present, and that no one swept the cave [under the cromlech] without finding money." The traveller found it confirmed by traditions on the spot, that marriages were there celebrated in the open air, and sacrifices made before persons began ploughing.

We may now turn our attention to the *kist-vaen*, concerning which the diversity of opinion has been as great as concerning the cromlech. It consists of two or three or more sides, or uprights, and a back stone occasionally, and over the whole is placed a top or covering-stone. In general a cell is thus formed, closed on three sides, and covered at top, but open now in front, although possibly closed when in actual use by some less durable material than the stone which forms the substance of the structure. The name *kist-vaen* (pl. *kistieu-vaen*) is Welsh, and means literally a *stone chest*. *Kist-vaens* are commonly found in the middle of stone circles, near the cromlech, and

sometimes without any cromlech near. They are also found isolated like the cromlechs, although generally other druidical monuments seem in their neighborhood. They are sometimes arranged in circles, with or without a cromlech in the centre; but we are aware of no instance in which the reverse occurs, namely, in which a kist-vaen stands within a circle of cromlechs. But there are examples in which kist-vaens combine with cromlechs to form a circle; and there are others in which a circle is formed by kist-vaens with intervening upright stones. A remarkable example of this last description is exhibited in the druidical circle in Jersey, a representation of which is given in the engraving below.



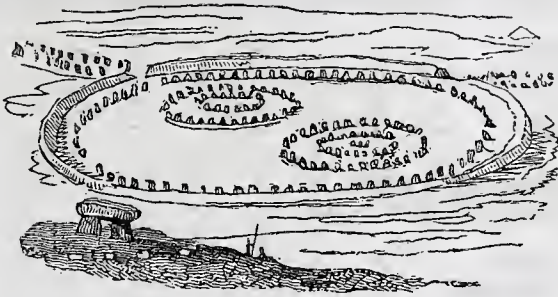
Druidical Circle.—Jersey.

There is certainly very considerable difficulty in determining the use of these monuments. Sir R. C. Hoare, from the instance, which has already been mentioned, of his finding a circle of five kist-vaens, under all of which there were sepulchral remains, while there were none under the central cromlech, is satisfied that they were intended for sepulchres. But, although the instance may be taken among others as proving that cromlechs were not sepulchres, but altars, it is by no means equally conclusive as to the kist-vaens being sepulchres, and this for nearly the same reasons as those by which the same purpose of cromlechs is rendered improbable. To which the other fact may be added, that under some of these monuments, that is, within the cell, springs of water rise, showing that such places could never have been sepulchres. That human remains and ashes are found around, or even within, some of them, might as well prove them to be altars as sepulchres: and even were remains, evidently inhumed with honor, there found, it would prove nothing as to their original intention. Honorable persons might desire to be buried in or near them, even as, among ourselves, persons of distinction are still buried in churches, and possibly for nearly the same reasons. It may have been a peculiar privilege of those initiated in the druidic mysteries to be buried in them.

Besides, as Davies sensibly remarks, "The date of these erections being very remote, and their use entirely forgotten, it is not improbable that, being misled by certain resemblances which present themselves to superficial observation, we confound two or three different kinds of monuments, which were really distinct, and which were erected for different purposes; and that, in consequence of this mistake, when we have discovered the use of one cromlech, we make erroneous conclusions respecting others." Most of the writers who suppose the cromlechs to be sepulchres, regard the kist-vaens as altars; while those who regard the former as altars gener-

ally deem the latter to be sepulchres. There are many, however, who deny the sepulchral use of either, and contend that the cromlech and kist-vaen are merely different kinds of altars, greater and lesser, the one perhaps for sacrifice, the other for oblations. We were for a time inclined to this opinion: but on careful deliberation, and considering that the first tabernacles and constructed temples are to be taken as commentaries on the stone monuments of more ancient date, we felt more disposed to find an analogy between the kist-vaen, or stone chest, and the *ark*, or sacred chest, which we find as the most holy object in the tabernacle and temple of the Hebrews, as well as in the Egyptian and some other heathen temples. In this case it would be the *adytum*, the most holy point, the Bethel, *house of God*, pre-eminently, and the true centre to which the local worship tended. Regarding the kist-vaen, then, as being to these open stone temples what the ark was in constructed temples, or, in other words, as a stone ark, it becomes a question what was the original idea therein, and which occasioned so peculiar a form as that of a *chest* to be given to it.

Druidical circles are more complicated. They usually consist of huge stones, placed on end, with, in some instances, connected lines or rows of similar stones, the whole forming objects at once rude and imposing. The most remarkable of these is that of Abury. This gigantic monument of druidical superstition is one of the most curious works of rude architecture in England. Most travellers have visited Stonehenge, and yet there are few but professed antiquaries who have ever heard the name of Abury. Dr. Stukely furnished a very interesting account of the vast circle delineated in the accompanying engraving; and Mr. Britton took considerable pains in tracing its early history. But we are indebted to Mr. Brayley for the latest view of this vast druidical temple.



Druidical Circle at Abury.

In England are single circles, consisting of stones not much, if any, larger than a strong man might bring to the place of their destination. Yet before these consecrated places had the advantage of the arts of architecture and sculpture to confer upon them elegance and grandeur, recourse was had to magnitude in the masses employed; and on comparing these works, in different places, we have to notice an obvious progression in the advances to this species of magnificence. Thus the circle of Rolbrick, in Oxfordshire, and that near Keswick, in Cumberland, consist of stones from two to not more than six feet in height; while those of Stanton Drew, in Somersetshire, are from eight or nine, to ten or twelve feet high. This kind of magnificence appears to have reached its climax in the stupendous works of Abury, or Avebury, and Stonehenge; particularly the former, which, for the space of ground that it originally covered, and the number and the magnitude of the stones employed, exceeds everything we read of in any country, except, perhaps, that at Camac, in Britany, which was also in form of a snake, and of which four thousand stones are computed to still remain. The figure of this ancient British work was that of the Egyptian symbol of the circle and the serpent, on a scale so magnificent, that the serpent extended two miles in length. This stupendous design was executed under local circumstances very favorable to it. On the north side of the Bath road, about half a mile from the village of Kennet, and about five miles from Marlborough, there is a ridge of the chalky downs that runs in a northerly direction; this ridge abounds with prodigious masses of sandstone of very fine texture, and light color; at the foot of this ridge, almost close to the road, is a long group of these stones, gray with moss, and somewhat resembling a flock of sheep reposing; on which account they are called the *Marlborough gray wethers*. On an adjoining hill was formerly

a double circle, which represented the head of the serpent, and the hill still retains the name of Hak-pen, *i. e.*, the snake's head. From this issued a double range of stones, winding over hill and vale to the extent of a mile; this avenue consisted of a hundred stones on each side, and may be considered as the *sacra via*, or path leading to the consecrated spot; the stones were all unhewn, and differing in size from three to five or six feet high. Here, in the central part, a circle was formed, of a hundred immensely large stones, some of them nearly six yards in height out of the ground, and about the same width; but several were much smaller. From this large circle, which included a space of twenty acres, another serpentine avenue, formed of a hundred stones on each side, extended westward, toward Beckhampton, one mile, gradually diminishing, and closing with a single stone, forming the tail end of this enormous serpent. A few years back, a portion of the Kennet avenue was in being, and assisted the imagination in forming to itself a faint idea of what the whole must have been. Within the large single circle of stones were two double circles, one to the north, and the other to the south of the centre; these were formed by two concentric circles each, the outer consisting of thirty, the inner of twelve stones; and probably referring to the days in the solar month, and the twelve stones to the months of the year. The hundred stones in the great outer circle, and the hundred stones on each side of the two avenues, might also have reference to some circle peculiar to their own superstitions.

At this day but little remains of this amazing work; here and there a stone belonging to the central part, a small portion of the Kennet avenue, and a few straggling stones on the Beckhampton side, with a few cromlechs on the west side of the Kennet avenue, are all that are left of six hundred and fifty-two stones, which Dr Stukely thus enumerates, as constituting the centre work of the temple:—

The great circles	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	100	stones.
Outer circle, north of the avenue	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	30	"
Inner do.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	12	"
Outer circle, south	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	30	"
Inner do.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	12	"
Cove and altar-stone, north circle	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	"
Central pillar and altar, south circle	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	"
Kennet avenue	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	200	"
Beckhampton avenue	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	200	"
Outer circle of Hak-pen	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	40	"
Inner do.	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	18	"
Long-stone cove-jambs	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	"
A stone the doctor calls the ring-stone	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	"
Closing stone of the tail	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	"
Total										652	"

Perhaps the three largest of these were those which formed a sort of cove within the north circle, having an altar-stone before it; in the south circle was a single stone or pillar, which also had an altar-stone in front of it. The middle stone of the cove was about fifteen feet and a half square, and about four feet thick. In 1720, when Dr. Stukely visited this British wonder, both circles were standing, and almost entire. The central pillar of the south circle was twenty-one feet in height, and nine feet in diameter.

Such was the colossal grandeur of the principal part of this symbolical structure, the magnificence of which must have been wonderfully augmented by the serpentine avenues, extending over hill and dale, for the distance of a mile on each hand. In 1722, the number of stones remaining in Kennet avenue were seventy-two, according to Dr. Stukely, to whose indefatigable industry we are indebted for the original figure of this grand British temple.

Perhaps this vast design originated in the facility of obtaining suitable materials for its accomplishment, for the persons employed had only to disengage the gigantic masses from their native beds in the neighboring hills, and transfer them thence to the place selected for them. To these herculean operations, levers and rollers, with a numerous body of laborers, would be sufficient; much more time would necessarily be requisite for the performance of their undertaking, than would have

been had they possessed such powerful machinery as we do at the present day ; but those simple instruments were of themselves sufficient.

The form of Abury is a proof of its being erected by persons conversant with the customs and religious rites and symbols of the Egyptians ; such were the Tyrians, who were in continual contact with that people, and also with Britain.

Another druidical circle of great note is Stonehenge. This is the most remarkable ancient monument now remaining in Great Britain ; nor, indeed, is there known anywhere to exist so stupendous an erection of the same character. Even in its present half-ruined state, the venerable pile retains a majesty that strikes, at the first glance, both the most refined and the rudest eye ; and the admiration of the beholder grows and expands as the more distinct conception of the original plan of the structure gradually unfolds itself from amid the irregular and confused mixture of the standing and fallen portions, which, for a short time, perplexes the contemplation. Stonehenge stands at a short distance from Amesbury, Wiltshire, on the brow of one of those broad and gentle elevations which undulate the vast level of Salisbury plain. The direction of the entrance, or avenue, is from northeast to southwest ; and this appears to have been the only entrance to the enclosure in which the building stands, which is formed by a circular ditch, three hundred and sixty-nine yards in circumference, and having a slight rampart on the inner side. The building stands in the centre of this circular area. An outer circle of enormous upright blocks, having others upon them, as the lintel of a door is placed upon sideposts so as to form a kind of architrave, has enclosed a space of one hundred feet in diameter. The upright stones in this circle had been originally thirty in number ; but only seventeen of them are now standing. That portion of the circle which faces the northeast is still tolerably entire, and the doorway at the termination of the avenue may be said to be in perfect preservation. It consists of two upright stones, each thirteen feet in height, and between six and seven feet in breadth, with a third block placed over them, of about twelve feet in length, and two feet eight inches in depth. The space between the two posts is five feet, which is rather a wider interval than occurs between any two other pillars. Through the circle the broad side of the stone is placed in the line of the circumference, so that there must have been more of wall than of open space, in the proportion of six and one half to five. The imposts are fixed upon the uprights throughout, by the contrivance called a tenon and mortise ; the ends of the uprights being hewn into tenons or projections, and corresponding hollows being excavated in the imposts. They are oval or egg-shaped. Of course, there are two tenons on each upright, and two mortises in each of the imposts, which are of the same number with the uprights. The principal workmanship must have been bestowed upon these fittings ; for, although the marks of the hewer's tool are visible upon the other parts of the stones, their surface has been left, upon the whole, rude and irregular. They are made to taper a little toward the top ; but even in this respect they are not uniform. Within this great circle there is another, formed by stones, not much smaller, but also much ruder in their outline ; of these there had originally been forty, but only twenty of them can now be traced. This circle has never had any imposts ; it is about eighty-four feet in diameter, and consequently the interval between it and the outer circle is eight feet.

The next enclosure has been formed of only ten stones ; but they are of very majestic height, exceeding that of the outer circle. They have been disposed in five pairs, and in the form of a half-oval, or rather of a horseshoe, the upper part facing the north end or great door ; the two pairs at the termination of the curve, which are distant from each other about forty feet, are each sixteen feet three inches in height ; but the height of the next two pairs is seventeen feet two inches, and that of the last pair, the station of which has been directly facing the opening, was twenty-one feet and one half. A striking effect must have been produced by this ascending elevation. A variety and a lightness must also have been given to the structure by the arrangement of the stones here, not at equal distances, as in the two exterior rows, but in pairs ; the intervals between each two pairs being much greater than that between the two stones composing each pair. The uprights of this row have imposts over them, as in the outer circle. One of these imposts is sixteen feet three inches long ; of course the imposts here, not forming a continuous architrave, are only five in number. Of the five pairs, or rather trilithons (that is, combinations of three stones), although some of the shafts have been injured and mutilated, all are still in their places, except the fifth, or that which faced the entrance : this trilithon



Remains of Stonehenge.

fell down on the 3d of January, 1797, and the stones now encumber a flat one, of about fifteen feet in length, which lay at their base. Lastly, there appears to have been a fourth enclosure, formed originally (as Stukely thinks) of nineteen stones, but only eleven now remain entire or in fragments. These seem also to have been arranged in the shape of a half-oval, with the open part, as in the case of the other, to the northeast. Although greatly inferior in height to those last described, they are still taller than those of the second circle. The most perfect, according to Sir R. C. Hoare (see his *History of South Wilts*, London, 1812), is seven and one half feet high, and twenty-three inches wide at the base, and twelve at the top. Like the second circle, this row has never had any imposts.

A variety of absurd legends are connected with the origin and purposes of this erection; but it is now universally admitted, that the view taken of its origin by Stukely (1740) is the correct one, viz., that it is a druidical temple of the ancient Britons. It has also been the subject of wonder how the immense stones came there (this has been set at rest by Sir R. C. Hoare, who proves that those of the outer circle, and the five trilithons of the grand oval, are of the same kind with those which are found in different parts of the surface of the Wiltshire downs, and are there called *Sarsen Stones*, that is, stones taken from their native quarry in their rude state), they being a fine-grained species of silicious sandstone. Those forming the smaller circle and the smaller oval are again quite different. Some are an aggregate of quartz, feldspar, chlorite, and hornblende; one is a silicious schist; others are hornstone, intermixed with small specks of feldspar and pyrites. What is called the altar, being the stone now covered by the centre trilithon, is a micaceous fine-grained sandstone. It is still a matter of speculation by what mechanical power they were placed in their situations.

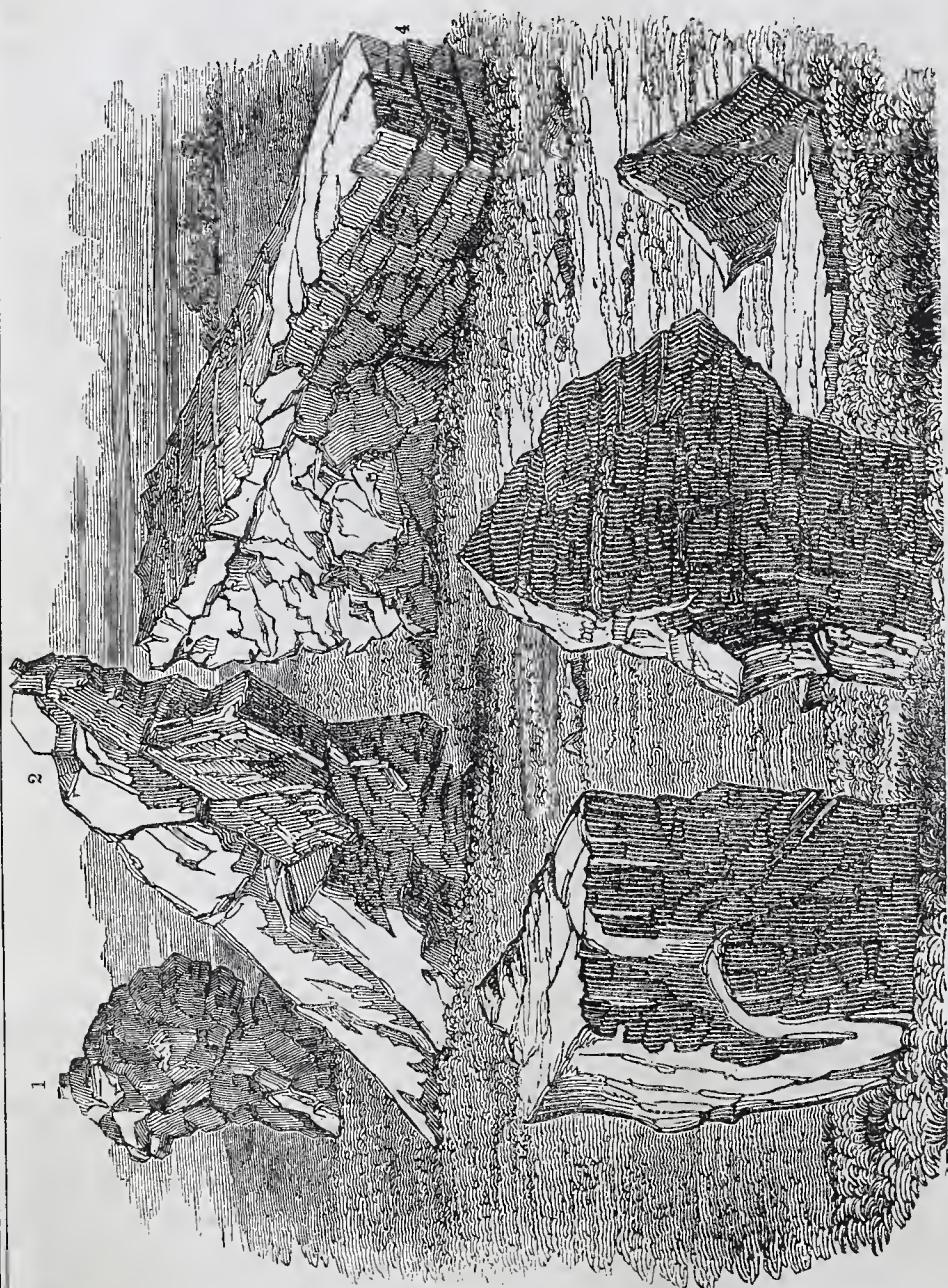
The druidical remains at Stanton Drew, in Somersetshire, deserve mention, though not equal in size and celebrity to those of Stonehenge and Avebury, in Wiltshire.

Stanton Drew is a small parish in the hundred of Keynsham, which was formerly called Stantone, and Stantune, from *stean*, a stone, and *ton*, a town. The present name is said to mean the *Stone-town of the Druids*. It is about seven miles south of Bristol, on the further side of Dundry hill (the site of an ancient beacon).

For what purpose this and similar monuments were erected, is a point that has been much discussed; but it is considered, from the name and other circumstances, to be almost certain that this ancient structure not only belonged to the Druids, but that the village of Stanton Drew was in some measure the metropolis or seat of government of the Hædvi. Druidical circles are by some antiquaries supposed to have been used to contain assemblies for purposes of religion, legislation, and other national affairs; but great difference of opinion has arisen, as to what may have been the object of those rude, solitary stones which have no uniformity of size or structure, and which are found at irregular distances. The great antiquity of these monuments is unquestionable, some of them being intersected and injured by Roman ways, which sufficiently proves that their original use was lost before the construction of the roads. Druidism, which is said to have been first established in this country, flourished in the time of Nero, and subsisted for a considerable time afterward; and young men came from Gaul to Britain to be initiated in the mysteries.

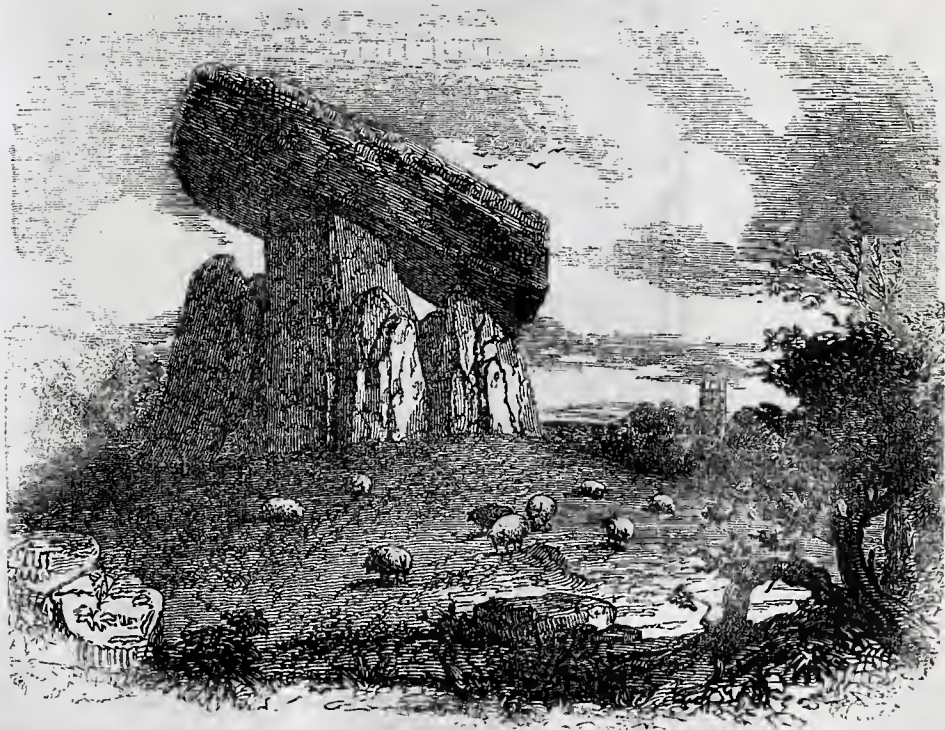
It is asserted that Stanton Drew was constructed before Stonehenge; and Dr. Stukely, who visited the place about 1723, considers it to be even more ancient than Avebury.

Beside some other stones, Stanton Drew consists of three circles, which, by the people in the neighborhood, are called the "Wedding," from a tradition that as a bride and her attendants were proceeding along, they were all converted to stone. The bride and bridegroom, the fiddler and the dancers, are fancifully pointed out, and it is considered wicked to attempt to count the stones. The measures given are principally taken from an account of this place, published by the Rev. S. Seyer in the year 1821; and on comparing his description with the existing state of the place in the year 1834, it was found correct. The great circle has a diameter of three hundred and forty-two feet; but as only five stones are standing in their places, the *coup d'œil* is not striking. How many stones there were originally, it is not easy to determine, those that remain being at unequal distances; and if the prostrate masses still lie where they fell, the stones could never have been regularly placed in the circle. Dr. Musgrave, who wrote in 1718, imagines that the number of stones in



Stores at Stanton Drew.

this circle once amounted to thirty-two, and possibly there may have been more. They were not perfect in his time; and they are said to have been much injured and broken, upward of a century ago, for the purpose of mending the roads; and Dr. Stukely also mentions that they had suffered great dilapidation. Mr. Seyer thinks that there are certainly twenty-seven stones, which vary considerably in size and shape: one is sixteen feet high; another, which is prostrate, is eleven feet high and nine feet wide; others are not so large, but are of a remarkable form, as fig. 1, in the engraving. On the east side of this circle are five stones, which may have formed part of an avenue, as it is supposed that there were formerly four or five others. Still more to the east is a circle of eight stones, the circumference of which is one hundred and fifty feet distant from that of the large circle; the diameter of this circle is ninety-four or ninety-six feet. It appears by Musgrave, that the eight stones were all erect in his time, except one; at present four are prostrate, but they are high above the ground; and from the superior workmanship, this circle is possessed of considerable interest. Fig. 2 is twelve and a half feet high, perpendicularly; it inclines toward the north, in which position it is supposed to have been originally placed. Fig. 3 is square and massive, and this, as well as the stone opposite, is a little out of the exact circle. The largest stone (fig. 4, fifteen and a half feet in length) is prostrate, and another stone is broken in several pieces. Eastward of these eight stones are seven others, which, with the addition of three or four more, which are conjectural, are said to have been an avenue to the circle of eight. Musgrave considers that these extrinsic stones, and the five others before described, originally formed another circle, going round the circle of eight. Stukely supposes that this circle and the stones in question, were at first five concentric circles, but this appears improbable, from the number of stones required, and of which there are no traces which would justify such a conclusion. The centre of the southwest circle, called by Stukely the Luna temple, is seven hundred and fourteen feet from the centre of the great circle. This diameter is stated by Wood to be one hundred and forty feet, by Stukely, one hundred and twenty feet; and it consists of eleven or twelve stones, which are rude and irregular in appearance. Northwest of this circle, a little more



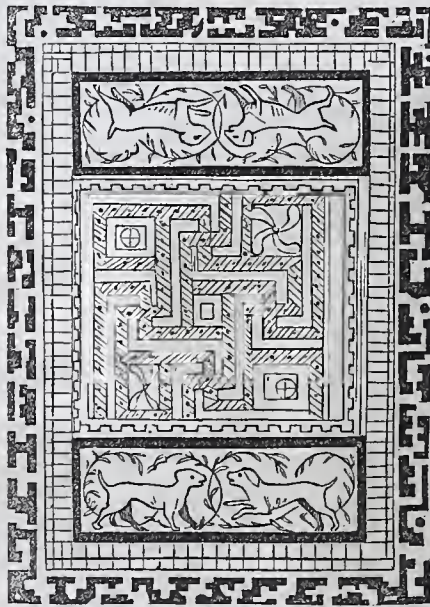
Trevelty Stone Cromlech.

than one hundred yards distant, is a cove (fig, 5) at which the Druids are supposed to have sat for judicial purposes. It is formed of three large, flat stones, which are about nine hundred and ninety-two feet from the centre of the great circle, and it is not far from the church of Stanton Drew. North or northwest of the cove, and about two thirds of a mile from the great circle, are two large stones, lying flat; and beyond the river Chew, near the road on the approach to Stanton Drew, is a stone of large dimensions, called "Hackell's Quoit," which was formerly computed to weigh thirty tons, but it has been broken at different times, for materials to mend the roads. The local tradition is, that this immense stone was thrown into its present situation from Maes-knoll, by Sir John Hautville, or Hawkwell, a famous champion, the distance being about a mile. At Maes-knoll is a barrow, which it is probable may have reference to Stanton Drew.

Dr. Stukely supposes the original number of stones to have been one hundred and sixty; but Seyer, with more appearance of probability, considers that they did not exceed sixty; in addition to which, some few, hitherto unnoticed, are said to exist in unfrequented parts of the parish. The greater part of the stones are of magnesian limestone, but some are of red sandstone and breccia.

Trevethy stone also deserves notice. It is a fine cromlech in the parish of St. Cleer, near Liskeard, Cornwall. The term *Trevedi* is said to signify, in the British language, *the place of graves*, and its object was in all probability sepulchral. The stones are all of granite; six of them are upright, and one large slab covers them, in an inclined position, with another reclining under it. The dimensions of the uppermost stone are about twelve by eight and a half feet, and one foot in thickness. No tradition exists as to the time when this monument was erected, but its name at once designates it to have been the work of the ancient Britons. It stands on a barrow, upon the summit of a hill, as shown in engraving on the previous page.

Roman remains in Great Britain are now rare and nearly obliterated. Coins and mosaics, however, are occasionally found. A recent excavation brought to light the mosaic here inserted. This, and other remains of a similar character, show that luxury had made great progress in Great Britain at an early period.



Roman Mosaic.

The Romans, like the Britons, erected barrows over their dead, which were invariably placed near their roads. Coins, urns, pateræ, weapons, armor, and articles of ornament, are frequently found in the Roman barrow. The annexed engraving shows the interior of a Roman barrow, discovered in Chatham Lines, in September, 1799.



Interior of a Roman Barrow.

Although this barrow does not represent the leading features of the Roman description, yet its having formed part of a cluster of barrows, the contents of which leave no doubt as to the nation to whom they belong, we are bound to believe that this also is Roman. The cist, in which the body was laid, was nearly eight feet in length, and four feet below the level of the native soil. The body lay with the head to the south, and there was no appearance of a coffin. The accompanying remains showed it to have been a warrior; at the feet lay a bottle of red earth.

Other barrows, opened in the same lines, gave more certain remains of Roman workmanship, beads, rings, fibulæ, armillæ, and various other relics. It has been observed that small barrows yield more articles of antiquity than large barrows. A list of articles found in the small barrows, with a short description, may not be deemed out of place:—

Swords.—Commonly of iron, sometimes of brass, generally equal in length, without ornaments of other metals, and the blade long and double edged.

Spear-heads.—Also of iron, and, in form, scarcely two alike; they seldom exceed a foot in length, and are an inch to an inch and a half at the widest part in breadth.

Bows and arrow-heads are seldom met with.

Knives, from three to eight inches in length, of iron, with wooden cases, parts of which, decayed, are often attached to the blades.

Pans and vessels of earth, containing liquids, not in shape like the cineritious urns, but of light red or brown unglazed earth, with narrow necks.

Vessels of glass and beads, the latter of various shapes and colors, are generally found in barrows, the human contents of which are supposed females.

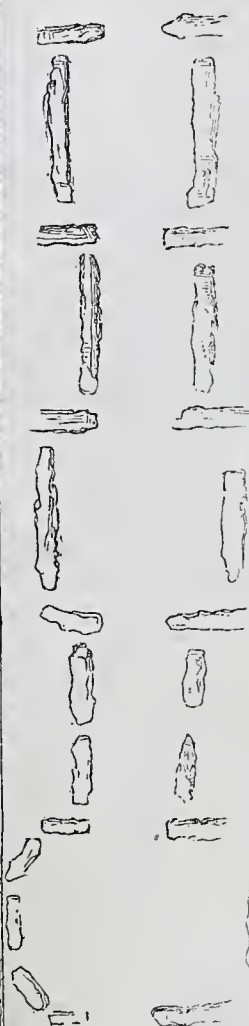
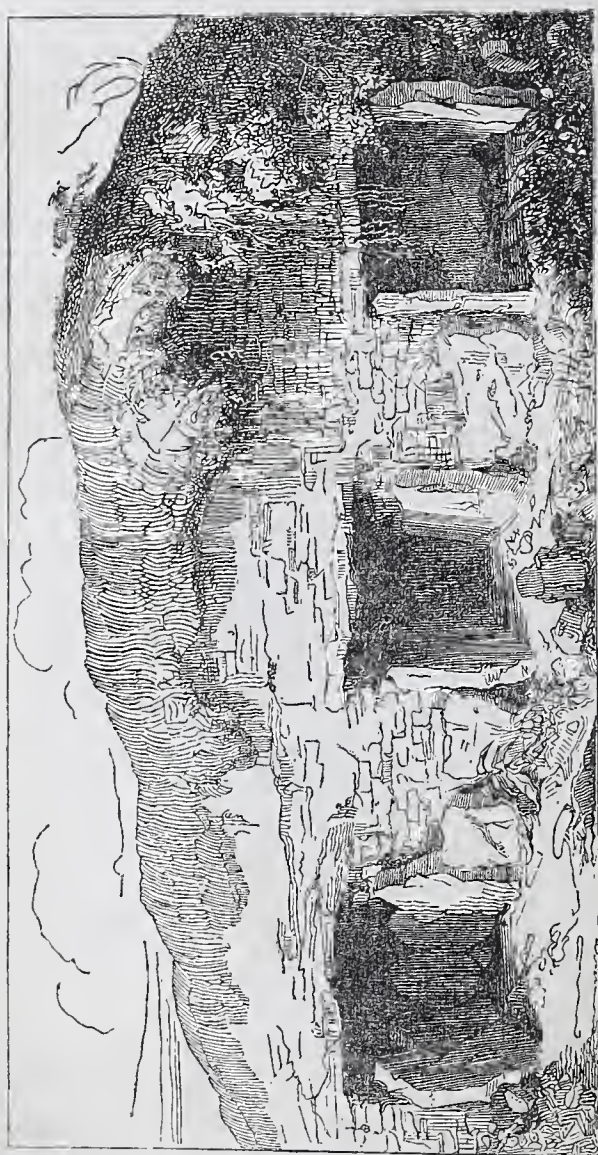
Armillæ of iron, glass, and brass, bracelets of gold wire woven, and brooches of various forms, often with delicate ornaments.

Amulets and rings—the former often of gold, the latter of slight workmanship, often of silver wire with a bead, and in Roman seldom solid. Rings of brass and iron often occur in British barrows, and are supposed to be the same commonly allowed to have passed for money.

Nor are these burial places found confined alone to those of the ancient Britons and Romans. The Danes likewise have left behind them sepulchral monuments, varying entirely from those of the preceding.

Our engraving represents one which was discovered in 1817, in Willow, Somersetshire. It measured one hundred and seven feet in length, fifty-four in breadth, and was thirteen in height. The entrance was closed by a large flat stone, which rested on two others. The bodies were deposited in a gallery fifty-seven feet long, arranged as seen in the plan. The walls on each side are formed of stones strongly cemented together. In this were found bones and cinerary urns, which prove that the custom of burning bodies had not entirely passed into disuse at this time.

The roads formed by the Romans have, in some instances, been changed into the broad and well-paved ways which occur so often in England. In other cases, slight traces of the original pavement, which generally consisted of large stones, forming a causeway, are to be found.



Danish Tombs.

Some of the most remarkable ruins of the walls of the Romans are to be seen in York, of which the following account is given by Dr. Lister:—

“Carefully viewing the antiquities of York, the dwelling at least of two of the Roman emperors, Severus and Constantius, I found part of a wall yet standing, which is undoubtedly of that time. It is the south wall of the mint-yard, and consists of a multangular tower, which did lead to Bootham bar, and part of a wall which ran the length of Coning-street, as he who shall attentively view it on both sides may discern.

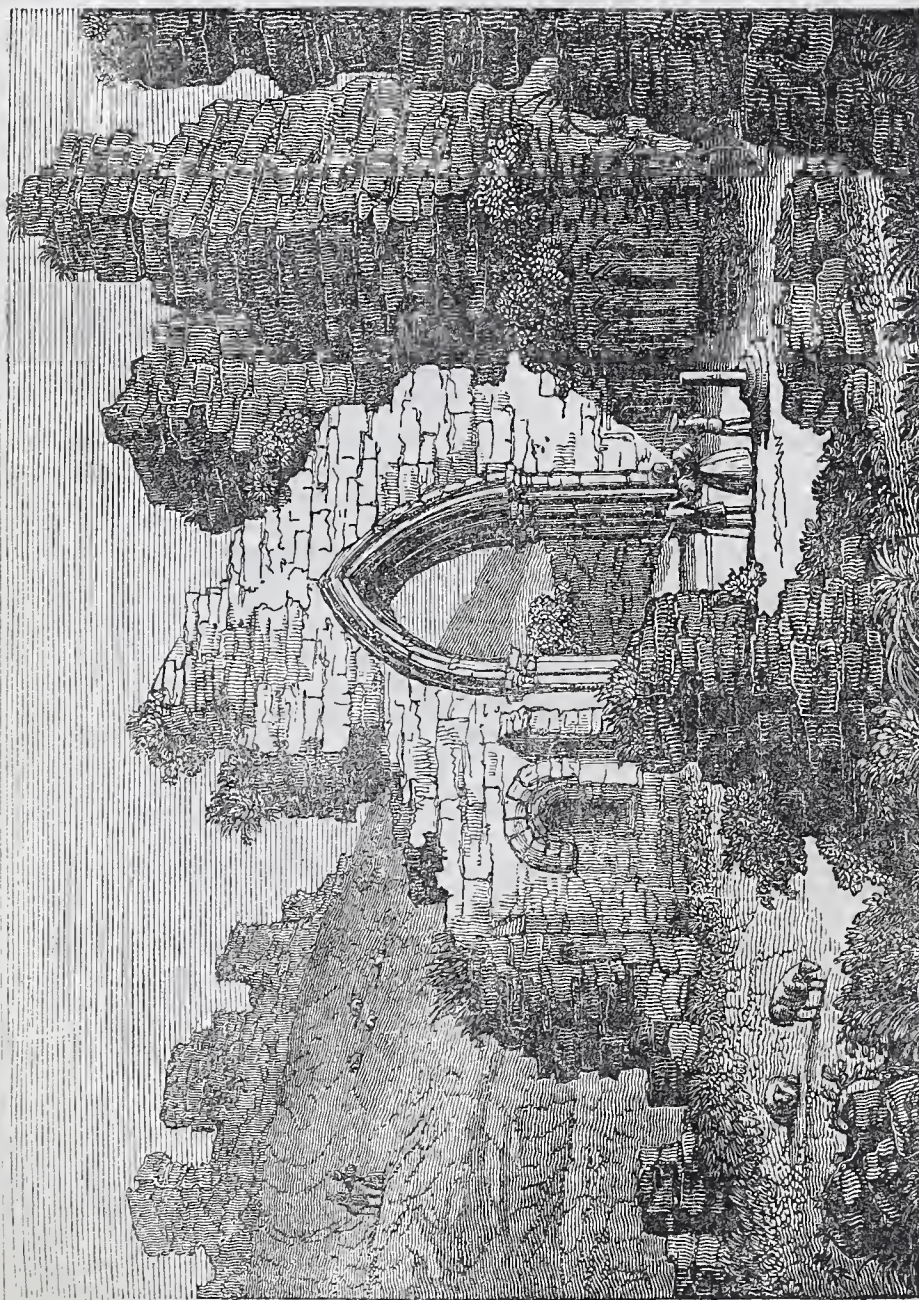
“The outside to the river is faced with a very small *saxum quadratum*, of about four inches thick, and laid in levels like our modern brickwork. The length of the stones is not observed, but they are as they fell out in hewing. From the foundation twenty courses of these small squared stones are laid, and over them five courses of Roman bricks. These bricks are placed, some lengthwise, some endwise in the walls, and were called *lateres diatoni*; after these five courses of brick, other twenty-two courses of small square stones, as before described, are laid, which raise the wall some feet higher, and then five more courses of the same Roman bricks; beyond which the wall is imperfect, and capped with modern building. In all this height there is not any casement or loophole, but one entire and uniform wall; from which we may infer that this wall was built some courses higher, after the same order. The bricks were to be as thorough, or, as it were, so many new foundations, to that which was to be superstructed, and to bind the two sides firmly together; for the wall itself is only faced with small square stone, and the middle thereof filled with mortar and pebble.

“These bricks are about seventeen inches long of our measure, about eleven inches broad, and two and a half thick. This (having caused several to be carefully measured) I give in round numbers, and do find them to agree well with the Roman foot, which the learned antiquary Graves has left us, viz., of its being about half an inch less than ours. They seem to have shrunk in the baking, more in the breadth than in the length, which is but reasonable, because of their easier yielding that way; and so, for the same reason, more in thickness; for we suppose them to have been designed in the mould of three Roman inches. This demonstrates Pliny’s measures to be true, where he says, ‘*Genera laterum tria didoron, quo utimur longum sesquipedale latum pede*,’ and not those of Vitruvius, where they are extant; the copy of Vitruvius, where it describes the *didoron* and its measures, being vicious. And indeed, all I have yet seen with us in England are of Pliny’s measure, as at Leicester, in the Roman ruin there, called the Jew’s wall, and at St. Alban’s, as I remember, as well as with us at York. I shall only add this remark, that proportion and uniformity, even in the minutest parts of a building, are to be plainly perceived, as this ruin of Roman workmanship shows.”

At Newcastle and Carlisle are the remains of the two walls built respectively by the emperors Adrian and Severus, A. D. 120 and 210, to keep out the northern barbarians: the first being a high mound of earth, and the second a rampart of stone, sixty-eight and one half miles long, running parallel to the first, on the outside.

Remains of Roman camps, bridges, villas, baths, &c., also exist in various parts of England. All the towns, the names of which terminate in *chester* or *cester*, are considered as having been originally Roman stations. Near St. Alban’s are the remains of the walls which once surrounded the Roman town of *Verulamium*, the site of the town itself having long been subjected to the plough.

Upon a rocky cliff, to the westward of the town of Hastings, there are some remains of a large and very ancient castle. At what period, or by whom it was erected, is not stated by any writer who has treated of British antiquities. But from its situation, which must have been particularly favorable to the ancient mode of fortification, it is more than probable that a fortress existed here long before that which the Danish rovers, under Hastings their leader, are said to have constructed. This conjecture receives some support from a passage in the “Chronicles of Dover Monastery,” printed in Leland’s “Collectanea,” which says, that “when Arviragus threw off the Roman yoke, it is likely he fortified those places which were most convenient for their invasion, namely, Richborough, Walmer, Dover, and Hastings.” Bishop Lyttleton, however, was inclined to think that here was originally a Roman fortress, built as a defence against the invasion of the pirates. He further observes, that, although William the Conqueror, as we are told, ran up a fort at Hastings just before his engagement with Harold, this could not have been his work, as it would have



St. Mary's Chapel, Hastings, and Ruins of Castle on the Cliff.

required more time and labor than his circumstances would then have allowed ; and concludes that William might probably have repaired the old Roman castle, and have placed a garrison in it. In the "History of Canterbury," written by Eadmer, it appears that, in the year 1090, almost all the bishops and nobles of England were assembled by royal authority at the castle of Hastings, to pay personal homage to King William II. before his departure for Normandy.

Little more concerning this castle is mentioned in history, except that within its walls there was a free royal chapel dedicated to the Virgin Mary, in which was a dean, with several secular canons and prebendaries. It is supposed to have been founded by one of the earls of Eu, while proprietor of the castle. Prynne, as quoted by Grose, records various circumstances relative to a dispute between King Edward III. and the bishop of Chichester and archbishop of Canterbury, concerning the right claimed by them of visiting this chapel, which, however, in the reign of Henry VI., was placed under the jurisdiction of the former of these prelates.

What remains of the castle approaches nearest in shape to two sides of an oblique spherical triangle, having the points rounded off. The base, or south side, next the sea, completing the triangle, is formed by a perpendicular craggy cliff, about four hundred feet in length, upon which are no vestiges of walls or other fortification. The east side is made by a plain wall measuring nearly three hundred feet, without tower or defence of any kind. The adjoining side, which faces the northwest, is about four hundred feet long. The area included is about an acre and one fifth. The walls, nowhere entire, are about eight feet thick. The gateway, now demolished, was on the north side, near the northernmost angle. Not far from it, to the west, are the remains of a small tower, enclosing a circular flight of stairs ; and still farther westward, a sally-port and the ruins of another tower. On the east side, at the distance of about one hundred feet, ran a ditch, one hundred feet in breadth at the top, and sixty feet deep ; but both the ditch, and the interval between it and the wall, seemed to have gradually narrowed as they approached the gate, under which they terminated. On the northwest side there was another ditch, of the same breadth, commencing at the cliff opposite to the westernmost angle, and bearing away almost due north, leaving a level intermediate space which, opposite to the sally-port, was one hundred and eighty feet in breadth.

The following engraving represents the present appearance of a building remarkable as being not only the most ancient specimen of the architecture of the Romans *now existing* in Great Britain, but almost the earliest building constructed of masonry in a regular manner that was erected in this country.

Standing on the most elevated portion of the hill on which the castle of Dover is situated, it forms a conspicuous object visible for miles around, and for the last eighteen hundred years has served as a landmark to guide the mariner to the shores of England.

Dover castle, like most ancient buildings which have been maintained for purposes of a rough kind of utility, presents more evidences of strength than elegance. The different portions of this pile of buildings have been erected at various times, and generally without any regard to appearance ; yet the effect from a distance is perhaps more imposing than if the strictest architectural proportions and uniformity of style had been observed ; and even on a nearer view the spectator can not fail to admire the picturesque character of the scene. Taking in nearly the whole of the level part on the summit of the hill, the castle walls enclose an area of nearly thirty acres, on which towers and keeps and walls of Roman, Saxon, and Norman construction, are wildly mingled with structures of more modern date, which the exigencies of the garrison have from time to time caused to be added to the original plan.

It has been supposed that the Britons, before they were invaded by the Romans, had erected something like a castle or stronghold on the site of the present fortress ; and it has been said that on such a foundation Julius Cæsar caused a more substantial and effective building to be constructed. But it would require little pains to show that the Britons, living in a very low state of civilization, were so unacquainted with the means by which other nations sought to protect themselves from the encroachments of enemies, and so totally ignorant of the most necessary arts of life, as to be unequal to the task which some modern antiquaries have assigned them. With respect to the second supposition, a brief consideration will be sufficient to convince us that the tradition which ascribes the erection of a fort on this spot to Cæsar, is at least destitute of probability, if it be not founded in error.



Roman Lighthouse, Church, and Trenches, in Dover Castle.—From a Sketch taken on the spot, 1839.

Cæsar has himself left us a very graphic account of his visit to these shores; and if we compare his narrative with the geography of the coast, we shall scarcely fail in arriving at the conclusion that the place of his landing was not at that point of the coast where Dover now stands, but at a considerable distance from it to the northeast. It is true that he appears on his first arrival to have sailed straight for the point now occupied by the town (the sea at that time flowing nearly close to the rocks called the "Heights," from which it has since receded): but he there met with such a resistance from the natives, that he was compelled to withdraw his men from the reach of their missiles. He now held a council of war, and eventually ordered the vessels to proceed round to a place about seven miles further, where a capacious bay between the isle of Thanet and the cliff near Walmer castle appeared to offer a less hazardous place for the disembarkation of the troops. But here again he met with a vigorous resistance, and finding the attempts of his men to force a landing ineffectual, they were recalled, and the galleys again sent further on. The third attempt was made at a part of the shore where the isle of Thanet was divided from the mainland by a large estuary (at that time sufficiently deep and spacious to allow vessels to pass through, and thus avoid going round the foreland). Here, after a sharp struggle, he succeeded in effecting a landing, and being now able to cope with the natives to more advantage, he very soon put them to the rout.

But although he thus effected a landing, and afterward obtained various successes in his expeditions against the natives, he found himself so harassed by them and by the savage condition of the country, as well as from anxiety for the safety of his ships, that he was glad to avail himself of the earliest opportunity for taking his departure. This occurred in the fifty-fifth year before the Christian era.

In the ensuing year he made another visit to Britain, and, coming better prepared, was enabled to achieve greater success, but even on this second expedition he did not stay long in the island, and we have no account of his having erected a fortress on the hill where the remains stand which have caused so much speculation. He certainly alludes to the completion of his camp before he attempted to penetrate into the country, but we have every reason to believe that this was near the spot where he landed, and where his ships required protection.

There was a considerable interval between the evacuation of the island by Julius Cæsar and the next visitation of the Romans. It was not till the third year of the reign of Claudius, that that emperor determined to invade Britain for the purpose of annexing it to the empire. Aulus Plautius was accordingly sent to Britain for this purpose, with such legions as could be spared from the service in Gaul, and he succeeded in subjugating a considerable portion of the country. He reduced it to the form of a province; and having placed several of his veteran officers as governors of different districts, concluded he had effected the object for which he had been sent. But many of the natives having rebelled against the Roman authority, Publius Ostorius Scapula was sent, in the year 49, to repress the insurrectionary movements of the Britons. In this he partially succeeded; and in order to preserve the tranquillity to which the country had been reduced, as well as to suppress any further manifestation of ill-will, he proceeded to erect several forts at different parts of the country.

This is the first authentic account of there being any Roman masonry in the kingdom; and it is from this era we may date the commencement of the works on the Castle Hill.

The plan of the fortifications erected by the Romans may be easily traced by the present remains. The space enclosed by them did not exceed the length of four hundred feet, by about one hundred and forty feet in the greatest width. It was in the form of an oval, surrounded by a deep ditch and a high parapet; and although little more appears to have existed as a means of defence, the natural strength of the position was of more importance than a more extensive plan of fortification would have been, deprived of such an advantage. The octagonal building seen in the engraving is supposed to have been a lighthouse, and was probably erected, not less for the purpose of commemorating their conquest, than of affording assistance to merchants and others passing over from the continent. This edifice is of a square form in the interior, the sides being about fourteen feet wide, while the thickness of the walls is equal to ten feet. It is probable it was originally constructed higher than it now appears, though it is impossible now to say whether such was the fact. The entrance to the northeast is about six feet wide, the passage being arched and in good preser-

vation ; but the windows above have been altered, repaired, and disfigured, so that it is scarcely possible to recognise them as a part of the original building. The structure of this tower is peculiar, as the materials consist of blocks of a stalactical concretion, mingled with tiles. This tower was made a place of defence in the time of William the Conqueror, when it underwent several alterations ; and it was repaired in the year 1259 by Richard de Grey, the constable of the castle. Since that time it has been allowed to take its chance of preservation against time and weather, both of which it has bravely resisted ; but we are afraid, if it does not shortly succumb to the elements, it will be destroyed by the hand of man, as antiquarian tyroes are carrying it away piecemeal.

Adjoining the lighthouse is a building which for many ages was used as a church, and which appears to have been erected either by the Romans or with the materials of some other edifice constructed by them. There is a tradition which ascribes its erection to the piety of Lucius, a king of Britain, who is said to have been converted to Christianity about the year 172. Though this may be doubted, it is certain that at a very early period it was used as a church. The Romans occupied a church on this spot until they quitted the country, in the year 446 ; but whether that was the same building as the one still remaining, we must probably for ever remain in ignorance. It has also been said to have been afterward occupied by St. Austin and his followers by permission of Ethelbert. So at least the monkish chronicles inform us ; but it has been supposed by modern antiquarians, and with probability, to have been pulled down and rebuilt by some of the masons or architects who arrived from the continent in the eighth century, after St. Austin had succeeded in planting the Christian religion in Britain. After the time of William I. (when John de Fienes, the constable of the castle, placed three chaplains in the church), we often find mention made of it ; and several of the officers connected with the castle have been buried there.

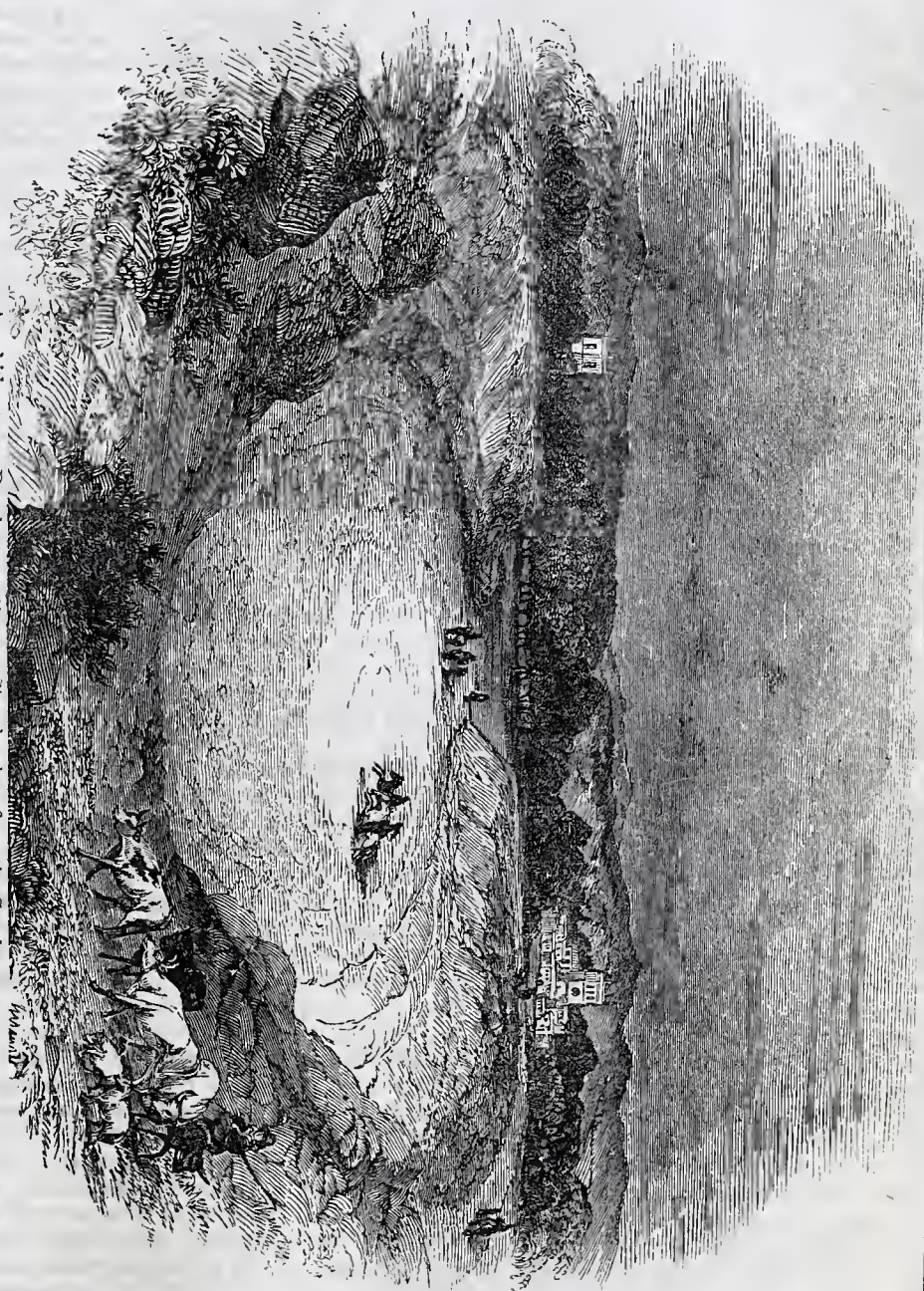
The building is in the form of a cross, with a square tower rising over the intersection formed by the transept and the body, which is supported by four pillars. The length of the body of the church to the tower is sixty feet.

The tower, which in the engraving is seen in the distance, forms part of the Norman additions to the castle, which surround the old Roman fortification to a considerable extent. Indeed, the space occupied on the Castle Hill by the Romans is very confined in comparison with the works of after-ages, which, as we have said, occupy thirty acres of ground.

The Roman amphitheatre at Dorchester is an interesting object to the antiquary. It has generally been the policy of a conqueror to engraft the manners of his own country on a vanquished people, that their tastes may gradually become assimilated to that of their conquerors, and the desire for a disunion less ardent. Thus the Romans, when they obtained a footing in Britain, lost no time in introducing in the island, and disseminating among the inhabitants those luxurious habits and voluptuous enjoyments to which a long career of power and prosperity had familiarized them. But among the customs which characterize different nations, and by which we may oftentimes judge of their leading dispositions, none have so great an effect on the minds of the common people, and from none is it so difficult to wean them, as their national sports and festivals. The Romans seem to have been aware of this, and to have exerted themselves greatly to render their own sports and amusements popular in their newly-acquired territory, conscious that nothing would tend more to dispel the lurking enmity and jealousy of the natives, than the taste acquired for new pleasures, and the commingling of both nations in the same amusements ; and it is probably to this principle, rather than to the necessity for providing sports for their own soldiers, that we may refer the erection for those large amphitheatres, the remains of some of which are yet distinguishable in different parts of England. The most perfect of these is that represented in the engraving, situated in the immediate vicinity of Dorchester, which in dimensions almost rivals the celebrated erections of Italy itself.

An amphitheatre differs from a theatre in being a continuous enclosure, the latter being only a semicircle, having its diameter closed up by the scene or stage. The first permanent theatre was erected by Pompey, although previously theatres had been constructed for temporary purposes, of great magnificence and at an extraordinary expense. Pliny minutely describes the theatre erected by Scaurus in his ædileship, which in splendor surpassed even the works of a similar character, produced

Amphitheatre at Dorchester—*from a Sketch taken from the Southwest.*



under the auspices of the emperors themselves. The scene was divided into three compartments, one above the other, (according to the practice of the ancient plays), and adorned with three hundred and sixty columns of marble, which material was also used for the base of the building, although the use of it at that time was considered a piece of unwarrantable extravagance; the sides were plated with glass, then a most costly article, and the boards, ceilings, and floorings of the upper stories were gilt. The pillars were each thirty-eight feet high, around which and interspersed between them were statues and images of brass, to the number of three thousand. The hangings of this theatre were of cloth of gold; the stage was, besides, ornamented with pictures; and the actors' apparel was of the most costly description. We may form some idea of the expense of these adjuncts, by the estimated value of a portion which was afterward consumed at a fire which burnt the villa of Scaurus, at Tusculum. Pliny says that those articles which were burnt amounted in value to a hundred millions of sesterces, upward of 80,000*l*. The theatre itself was sufficiently large, according to the writer from whom this account is taken, to contain eighty thousand persons, seated; but as it would apparently require a space seven hundred feet in diameter, to accommodate this number, the accuracy of the dimensions has been doubted; yet Pliny, in the same passage, notices the difference between this and the theatre of Pompey, which, he says, was contrived to contain only forty thousand seats.

The plan of the ancient amphitheatres, although they sometimes differed in unimportant particulars, may be briefly described as follows: An oval space, called the *arena*, from the sand with which it was strewn, to give a firm footing and to absorb the blood shed in the sports, was surrounded by seats, gradually rising, one above the other, in an inclined plane, till they reached a gallery or terrace which encompassed the whole. There were doors and passages leading to the seats in different parts of the building, which seats were divided vertically into *cunei* by staircases, and horizontally parted off for the different ranks of spectators. The space nearest the arena, called the *podium*, was appropriated to the senators, who generally had seats placed for them by their servants; the seats immediately above were set apart for the knights, with whom sat the civil and military tribunes; and the upper rows were occupied by the plebeians. Women were stationed in a gallery above, and servants in the highest gallery. Besides these, there were sometimes further distinctions made, youths being placed in a cuneus by themselves or with their tutors, and married men separated from the unmarried.

Gladiatorial exhibitions, and the public slaughter and combats of wild beasts, had been introduced to Rome at an early period of its history; but these shows generally took place in the forum or in the circus, until Julius Cæsar, in his dictatorship, constructed a wooden theatre, or amphitheatre, for the purpose of feasting, or killing wild animals. But the first amphitheatre intended to be permanent, was built, partly of stone and partly of wood, by Statilius Taurus, at the instigation of Augustus, who was passionately fond of these sports, especially the hunting of rare beasts. This was burnt during the reign of Nero, and though restored, fell short of the wishes of Vespasian, who commenced the vast structure completed by his son Titus, and afterward called the Coliseum, otherwise the Flavian amphitheatre. The expense of this building, it is said, would have sufficed to erect a capital city, and its dedication was celebrated with the utmost magnificence. The number of wild beasts slaughtered on the occasion is said to have amounted to more than five thousand (Dion Cassius makes the number nine thousand). At the conclusion of these sanguinary sports, the arena was filled with water, and a number of vessels, richly decorated, and filled with men, went through all the manœuvres of a seafight. On extraordinary occasions, further luxuries were contrived to gain the admiration of the multitude, or to increase the splendor of the scene. The arena was sometimes strewn with pounded stone; Caligula, in a fit of extravagance, used borax; and Nero, on another occasion, clothed it with a brilliant red, by mixing cinnabar with the borax. Many other extravagances might be mentioned, by which a temporary notoriety was gained by the expenditure of vast sums of money, which, properly or wisely dispensed, would have effected some good, and crowned the donor with imperishable honor.

To return to the amphitheatre at Dorchester. This memorial of the former power of the Romans in Britain is situated on the rising part of a plain, about a quarter of a mile beyond the southwestern gate of the town, from the inhabitants of which it

has received the name of Maumsbury, from what cause it is difficult to conjecture. In the neighborhood are other antiquities, and one of the ancient roads of the Romans passes near the spot. The dimensions of this ruin are considerable, the longest diameter being two hundred and eighteen feet, and the shortest one hundred and sixty-three. The arena is sunk somewhat below the level of the surrounding plain, while the sides, formed of solid chalk, which abounds in this part of Dorsetshire, are elevated some thirty feet above it. The entrance is at the northeast end of the oval, opposite to which is a staircase, or sloping pathway, ascending to the top of the superstructure, having beneath what appears to be the remains of a cave or subterraneous apartment, used to confine the animals destined for the sports. Commencing near the entrance, and gradually ascending on each side till it attains the middle row of seats, whence it declines to the opposite end of the oval, is a passage or terrace, probably intended to separate the popularia, or seats of the common people, from those of the knights, &c. This may be described by a circle, the centre of which is in that of the ellipse, having a diameter of about the mean of the two diameters of the ellipse or oval. On the top of the rows of seats is a terrace, about twelve feet broad, divided from the seats by a parapet; and from this, descending to the smaller terrace just described, is a *cuneus*, or parcel of seats, thirty feet in breadth, but somewhat different in dimensions to the rest, which are each one foot high and two feet and a half wide. It is probable these seats were covered with stone or wood, although it was the practice of even the plebeians to bring cushions with them to sit on.

In consequence of the arena having been much ploughed up, it is difficult to trace the outline of the *podium*, a broad platform which surrounded the arena, and to which the senators and highest officers were admitted; but its extent may be defined on a close scrutiny. Before the podium, grates, nets, and lattice-work of iron, were placed for security against the wild beasts; and to prevent their escaping among the spectators, there were also fixed wooden rollers, which, turning round, prevented the animals from climbing up. At the amphitheatre at Rome, in the time of Nero, these nets were knotted with amber; and the emperor Carinus caused them to be made of golden cord or wire, while the rollers were formed of ivory.

Dr. Stukely, who published an account of this amphitheatre in 1723, computes the area capable of containing nearly 23,000 people. He supposes it to have been constructed about the time of Titus; but of course, in such a matter, where the remains offer nothing, either in plan, construction, or inscription, capable of affording any information, and where no record exists to which we may refer for a solution of the question, it is impossible to arrive at anything but a conjectural conclusion. In modern times the arena has been used for the execution of criminals; and when, so late as 1705, a woman was burnt here for some crime, 10,000 people assembled to witness the punishment. The frequent assemblages on similar occasions had, when Stukely visited it, much defaced the structure; and although it has not much altered in appearance since, the plough has rendered the arena very different from its original appearance.

CHAPTER XII.

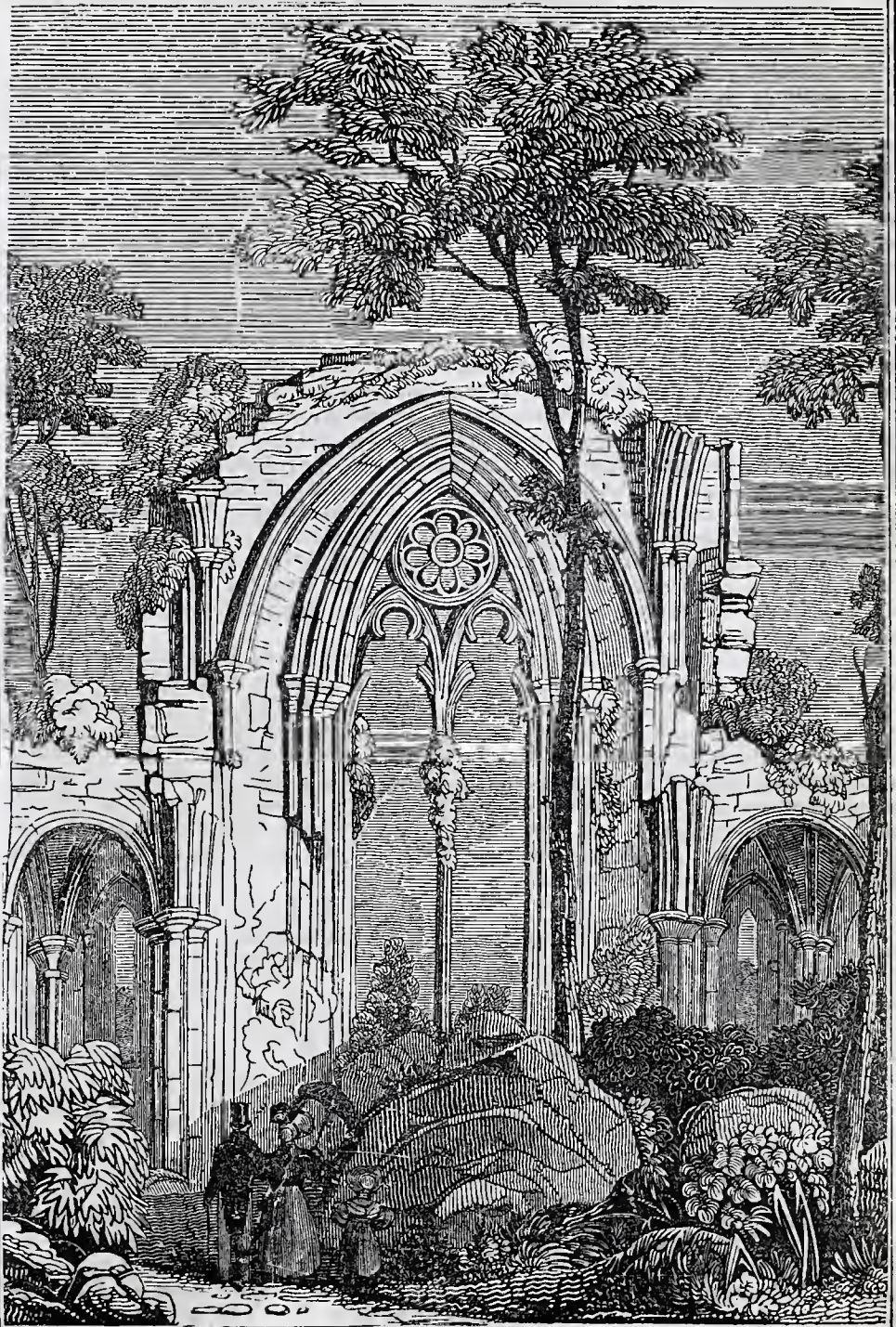
MONASTIC ANTIQUITIES.

UNDER this head we propose to describe a few of these picturesque ruins which add such a charm to the English landscape, and which, with the ruined towers and old castles which diversify the topography of that celebrated kingdom, tend to give a romantic interest to every portion of this gem of the ocean.

Netley (or Nettle) abbey, near Southampton, has long been celebrated as one of the most picturesque ruins in England. The proper name of the place appears to be Letteley, which has been Latinized into *de lato loco* (pleasant place), if it be not, as has been most commonly supposed, a corruption of this Latin designation. Another abbey in the neighborhood was, in the same manner, called *Beaulieu* in

French or Norman, and *de bello loco* in Latin. The founder of Netley abbey is stated to have been Peter Roche, bishop of Winchester, who died in 1238. The first charter appears to be granted by Henry III., in 1251. The abbey is there called *Ecclesia Sanctæ Mariæ de loco Sancti Edwardi*, and, in conformity with this, another of the English names of the place is Edwardstow. The monks of Netley abbey belonged to the severe order of the Cisterians, and were originally brought from the neighboring house of Beaulieu. Hardly anything has been collected with regard to the establishment for the first three hundred years after its foundation, except the names of a few of the abbots. At the dissolution it consisted of an abbot and twelve monks, and its net revenue was returned at only about 100*l*. It appears, indeed, to have been always an humble and obscure establishment. In the valuation of Pope Nicholas IV., made toward the end of the thirteenth century, it is set down as having an income of only 17*l*. Nor did the riches of the good monks consist in their library. Leland found them possessed of only one book, which was a copy of Cicero's Treatise on Rhetoric. In 1537, the place was granted by the king to Sir William Paulet, afterward the celebrated marquis of Winchester, who, according to his own account, was indebted for so much success in life to "being a willow, not an oak." From him, or his descendants it passed to Edward Seymour, Earl of Hertford, the son of the Protector Somerset, who is said to have made it his residence. In a little work, entitled "A Companion in a Visit to Netley Abbey," printed in 1800, there is an extract given from the parish register of St. Michael's, Southampton, from which it is inferred that Queen Elizabeth visited Lord Hertford in August, 1560; a circumstance not noticed in the elaborate account of her majesty's "Progresses," published by the late Mr. Nicholls. It states that she came from the castle of Netley to Southampton on the 13th, and went thence to Winchester on the 16th. The abbey, it is supposed, at this time, was known by the name of the castle. About the end of the seventeenth century it became the property, it is said, of a marquis of Huntingdon; but the earl of Huntingdon must be meant, for there never was a marquis of that name. He has the credit of having commenced the desecration of the old building, by converting the nave of the church into a kitchen and offices. There is also a strange story in which he is implicated, told by Browne Willis, the antiquary, and the memory of which is still preserved by tradition, in the neighborhood. The earl, it is said, about the year 1700, or soon after, made a contract with a Mr. Walter Taylor, a builder of Southampton, for the complete demolition of the abbey, it being intended by Taylor to employ the materials in erecting a townhouse at Newport, and other buildings. After making this agreement, however, Taylor dreamed that as he was pulling down a particular window, one of the stones forming the arch fell upon him and killed him. His dream impressed him so forcibly that he mentioned the circumstance to a friend (who is said to have been the father of the well-known Dr. Isaac Watts) and in some perplexity asked his advice. His friend thought it would be his safest course to have nothing to do with the affair respecting which he had been so alarmingly forewarned, and endeavored to persuade him to desist from his intention. Taylor, however, at last decided upon paying no attention to his dream; and accordingly began his operations for the pulling down of the building, in which, however, he had not proceeded far, when, as he was assisting in the work, the arch of one of the windows, but not the one he had dreamed of, which was the east window, fell upon his head and fractured his skull. It was thought at first that the wound would not prove mortal; but it was aggravated through the unskillfulness of the surgeon, and the man died. It is very possible that the whole of this story may have originated from the single incident of Taylor having met with his death in the manner he did; the added circumstances of the previous dream, &c., are not beyond the license of embellishment of which rumor and tradition are accustomed to avail themselves in such cases. The accident which befell Taylor, however, being popularly attributed to the special interposition of Heaven, is said to have, for the time, saved the abbey from demolition. But the place soon after passed out of the possession of the earls of Huntingdon, and has since been successively in that of various other families. It is, or was lately, the property of Lady Holland, the widow of Sir Nathaniel Holland, bart.

Netley abbey is now a complete ruin, nothing remaining except a part of the bare walls. It stands on the declivity of a gentle elevation, which rises from the bank of the Southampton water. The walk to it from the town of Southampton, of about three miles in length, is one of enchanting beauty, the surrounding landscape being



Ruins of Netley Abbey.

rich in all the charms of water and woodland scenery. The abbey itself is so embosomed among foliage, partly that of the oaks and other trees which rise in thick clumps around it, and some of which, springing up from the midst of the roofless walls, spread their waving branches over them, and partly that of the luxuriant ivy which clothes a great part of the gray stone in green, that scarcely a fragment of it is visible till the visiter has got close beside it. The site of the ruin, however, is one of considerable extent. Originally the buildings seem to have formed a quadrangular court or square; but scarcely anything more is now to be seen, except the remains of the church or chapel which occupied one of the sides. It appears to have been about two hundred feet in length by sixty in breadth, and to have been crossed at the centre by a transept of one hundred and twenty feet long. The walls can still be distinctly traced throughout the whole of this extent, except in the northern portion of the transept. The roof, however, as we have said, no longer exists, having fallen in about thirty or forty years ago. Its fragments, many of them sculptured with armorial bearings and other devices, lie scattered in heaps over the floor. Many broken columns still remain; and there are also windows in different portions of the wall, the ornamental parts of which are more or less defaced, but which still retain enough of their original character to show that the building must have been one of no common architectural beauty. The east end is the most entire, and the great window here is of elegant proportions, and elaborately finished. Besides the church, various other portions of the abbey, such as the kitchen, the refectory, &c., are usually pointed out to strangers; but the conjectures by which these apartments are identified, must be considered as of very doubtful authority. The whole place appears to have been surrounded by a moat, of which traces are still discernible; and two large ponds still remain at a short distance from the buildings, which, no doubt, used to supply fish to the pious inmates. Their retired and undisturbed waters now present an aspect of solitude which is extremely beautiful, overhung as they are by trees and underwood. About two hundred feet distance from the west end of the church, and nearer the water, is a small building, called Netley castle, or fort, which was erected by Henry VIII.

But the chief attraction of Netley abbey must be understood to consist, not so much in any architectural magnificence of which it has to boast, as in the singular loveliness of the spot, and in the feelings inspired by the overthrown and desolate state of the seat of ancient piety. No mind having any imagination, or feeling for the picturesque and the poetical, but must deeply feel the effect of its lonely and mournful, yet exquisitely beautiful seclusion. It has accordingly been the theme of many verses, among which an elegy, written by Mr. George Keate, the author of the account of the Pelcw islands and Prince Le Boo, was at one time much admired. A living poet, the Rev. Mr. Bowles, has also addressed the ruin in some lines of considerable tenderness, which we shall subjoin:—

"Fallen pile! I ask not what has been thy fate,
But when the weak winds, wafted from the main,
Through each lone arch, like spirits that complain,
Come hollow to my ear, I meditate
On this world's passing pageant, and the lot
Of those who once might proudly, in their prime
Have stood with giant port; till, bowed by time,
Or injury, their ancient boast forgot
They might have sunk, like thee; though thus forlorn
They lift their heads, with venerable hairs
Besprent, majestic yet, and as in scorn
Of mortal vanities and short-lived cares,
E'en so dost thou, lifting thy forehead gray,
Smile at the tempest, and time's sweeping sway."

The ruin of Rievaulx abbey is in the parish of Helmsley, north riding of Yorkshire, half-way between Ripon and Scarborough, and about twenty-five miles northeast of York. Several interesting associations are connected with the immediate neighborhood of Helmsley. Helmsley castle was the retreat of Villiers, duke of Buckingham, after his retirement from the court of Charles II. The adjacent town of Kirkby Moorside was the last scene of his humiliation, after health and fortune had been recklessly thrown away in a life of dissipation. Here he breathed his last, though not "in the worst inn's worst room," as the lines by Pope would infer, there being no tradition of the humble dwelling in which the fallen duke closed his career hav-



The Abbey of Rievaulx, from a Drawing by W. Westall, A.R.A.

ing been used at any period as a public house. The event is thus briefly recorded in the parish register: "Burials: April 17, 1687. Georges Vilaus, lord dooke of Bookingham." Helmsley castle stood a siege during the civil war, but was compelled to surrender to the parliamentary forces, and was afterward dismantled.

Rievaulx Abbey was one of the largest monastic structures in England. The probable length of the nave is estimated at 150 feet, and the whole length of the building at 330 or 340 feet. The choir is 144 feet long and 63 feet wide, and the transept 118 feet long and 33 feet wide. The church and the refectory are the principal parts of the edifice which remain. The abbey was founded in 1181, by Sir Walter Espee, whose only child, a son, was killed by a fall from his horse, at Kirkham; in consequence of which the afflicted parent resolved to devote the greater part of his possessions to religious purposes, and he accordingly built abbeys at Rievaulx and Kirkham, in Yorkshire, and at Warden, in Bedfordshire. Rievaulx is situated in a valley, the surrounding heights being covered with wood to their summits. The village is close to the abbey, and consists of a few scattered cottages, but they do not destroy the harmony of the picture, which, with the ruin, the wooded heights, a winding river, and two picturesque bridges, form a combination of objects that can not fail to strike the least practised eye. One of the Duncombe family, in whose possession the site has remained since 1695, formed a fine terrace on the hill which overlooks the ruins. It is said by many to be the finest in England.

On the monasteries of the first class being dissolved, Rievaulx, the revenues of which were valued at 378*l.* 10*s.* 2*d.* per annum, was seized by the crown, and afterward granted in exchange to a descendant of the Espee family. The duke of Buckingham obtained possession of it through his marriage, and the trustees of George, the second duke, sold it in 1695 to Sir Charles Duncombe, an ancestor of Lord Feversham, the present owner.

The dissolution of monastic establishments in England, in the reign of Henry VIII., is a circumstance of great historical interest, and closely connected with the circumstances under which considerable property is now held, both by laymen and for ecclesiastical purposes. The question of breaking up the monasteries was formally proposed by Cromwell, one of the ministers of Henry VIII., in the year 1535, and a general visitation of the monasteries by commissioners was ordered. It was first determined to meddle only with the smaller monasteries; and a bill passed both houses of parliament, in 1536, giving to the king all monastic establishments, the clear yearly value of which did not exceed 200*l.* with the property belonging to them, both real and personal, vesting the possession of the buildings and lands in those persons to whom the king should assign them by letters patent; but obliging the grantees, under the penalty of ten marks per month, to keep on them an honest house and household, and to plough the same number of acres which had been ploughed on an average for the last twenty years.

Dr. Lingard states, in his "History of England," that it was calculated that, by this act, about three hundred and eighty religious communities would be dissolved; and that an addition of 32,000*l.* would be made to the yearly revenue of the crown, besides the present receipt of 100,000*l.* in money, plate, and jewels.

The commissioners who were appointed to put the act in execution were ordered to proceed to each religious house to announce its dissolution to the superior—to make an inventory of the effects—to secure the convent-seal and the title-deeds—and to dispose of the inhabitants according to certain rules. The superior received a pension for life: of the monks, those who had not reached the age of twenty-four were absolved from their vows, and had to seek anew the means of existence. Others of the monks, who were placed in another class, were divided among the larger monasteries, or, in case they wished to leave the ecclesiastical state, were promised employment. The nuns were more hardly dealt with: each received a single gown from the king, and in other respects were thrown upon the world, or the support of friends.

The people were strongly affected, in many parts of England, by the consequences which resulted even from the dissolution of the smaller monasteries. The poor had formerly been fed at these establishments, and were now deprived of this ancient resource. Persons of property contended that the wealth of the monasteries ought not to fall into possession of the crown, but that it should revert to the representatives of the ancient donors. In the autumn of 1536, the state of public feeling was manifested by an insurrection in the northern counties, which was joined, most proba-

bly from inclination, by the archbishop of York, several noblemen, many knights, and most of the gentry; indeed, all whose attachment to ancient manners and customs was deeply rooted could not fail to desire that the progress of innovation should be checked. The insurrection, though of a formidable nature, was ultimately put down. This movement is generally spoken of as the "pilgrimage of grace," the banners of the insurgents being painted with the image of Christ crucified, and the chalice and host, the emblems of their faith. In many districts they placed the ejected monks in their former convents.

It appears now to have been the determination of the king and his ministers to deal with the larger monasteries in the same way as with the smaller ones. For a considerable period, commissioners were at work investigating the circumstances and condition of each establishment. In 1539 a bill was brought into parliament vesting in the crown all the property, moveable and immoveable, of the monasteries, and by the spring of the year 1540 it had been surrendered into other hands.

Dr. Lingard gives the following scale of pensions allotted to the ejected inhabitants of the monasteries. To the superiors, from 266*l.* to 6*l.* per annum; priors of cells, generally about 13*l.*, and in a few instances 20*l.*; to the other monks, pensions of 6*l.*, 4*l.*, or 2*l.*, with a small sum to provide for immediate wants on their departure. The pensions to nuns averaged about 4*l.* It should be recollected that the value of money has greatly changed since that period.

As soon as an abbey was surrendered, the commissioners, according to Burnet, proceeded to break the seal and assign pensions to the members. The plate and jewels were reserved for the king; the furniture and goods were sold. The abbott's lodging and the offices were left standing for the convenience of the next occupant: the church, cloisters, and apartments for the monks, were stripped of the lead, and every saleable article.

It appears from Rymer that the lands sold at twenty, the buildings at fifteen years' purchase; the buyers were to hold of the crown, paying a reserved rent.

According to the "*Liber Regis*," and other authentic sources, the annual revenue of all the suppressed monastic houses amounted to 142,914*l.* 12*s.* 9½*d.*, being about the one-and-twentieth part of the whole rental of the kingdom, if the estimates of Hume be correct, which assigned the amount at 3,000,000*l.* The amount of the estimates of the annual value of real property of England and Wales, as assessed in 1815, was about 52,000,000*l.*

Byland abbey is in the North Riding of the county of York, and not more than five miles from Rievaulx Abbey. As the history of these monastic establishments, which were once so numerous in England, generally contains some indications of the manners and habits of early times, and affords data for showing the changes which have taken place in the state of society, we shall give a brief account of the old abbey at Byland, from the records of one of the abbots, which may be seen at greater length in Dugdale's "*Monasticon*."

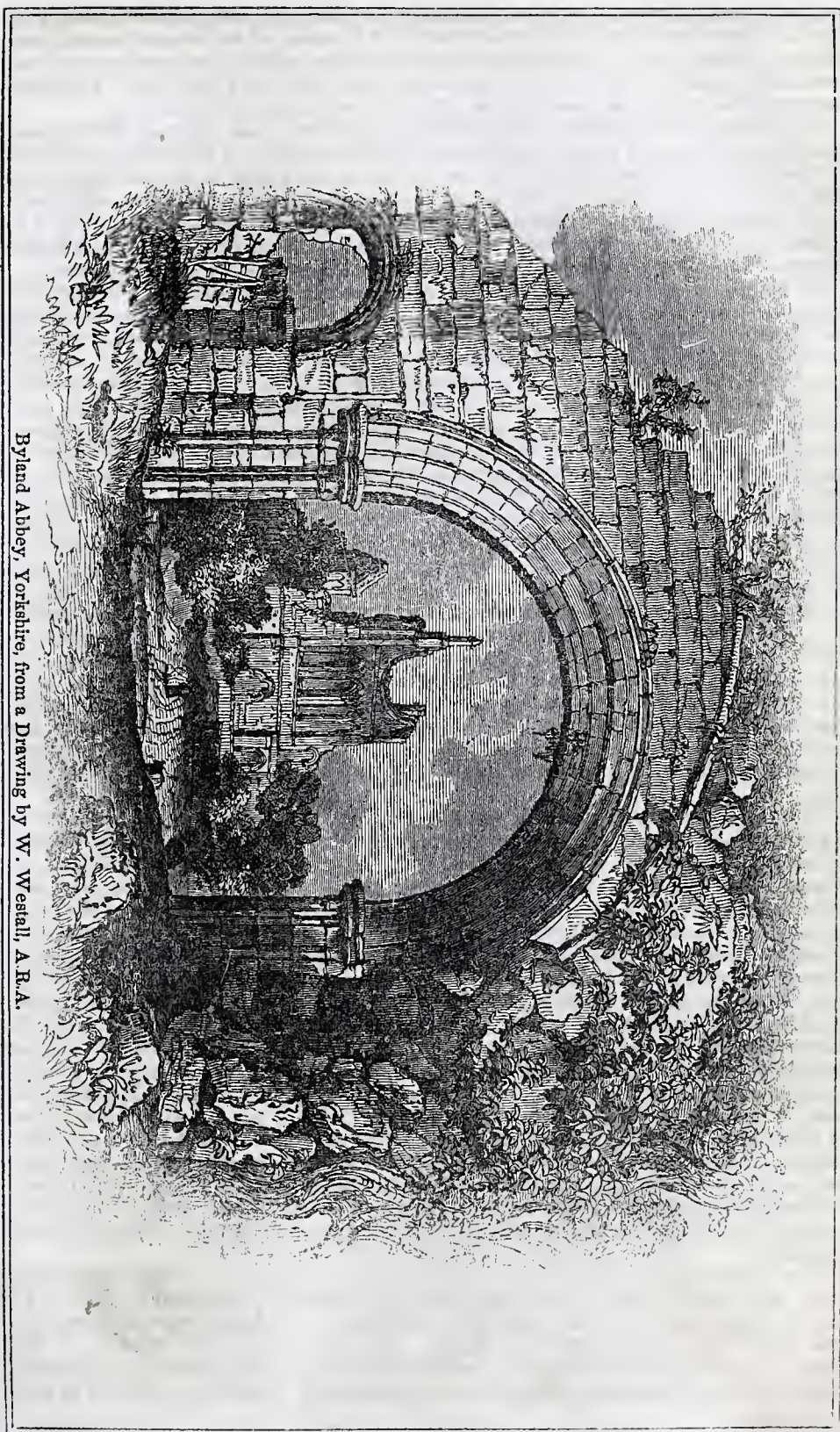
Byland abbey appears to have been founded in the twelfth century by Roger de Mowbray, at the instance of his mother. The abbot and twelve monks of Furness abbey, in Lancashire, having been disturbed by the incursions of the Scots, fled to York, where they were for some time entertained by the archbishop, by whom they were recommended to the protection of De Mowbray. Being a minor, however, his mother received them at her castle, and she afterward sent them to a near relation of her own, who had been a monk at Whitby, but who then led an eremetical life at Hode. Here she supplied them with necessaries until her son attained his majority, when he granted them a sufficient portion of land for their support. The monks soon afterward procured, at a general chapter of their order, held in France, an exemption from their former subjection to Furness. They remained at Hode several years, when, on the ground that their former grant did not afford them sufficient space, the church and town of Byland were granted to them for the purpose of building an abbey. Here they were too near the abbey of Rievaulx, being within the sound of its bells; and as there were some other inconveniences attached to the place, De Mowbray granted them another piece of land on which to erect their monastery, and they then built a small church, a cloister, and houses. Their possessions were soon considerably increased, and they added to the value of them by clearing the woodland and draining the marshes. They removed, in 1177, a little to the eastward, where the abbey of Byland, the remains of which are represented in the engraving, was built and dedicated to the Virgin Mary.

At this period the pope exercised great authority over the ecclesiastical affairs of England, and the monks of Byland seem to have received various privileges from the head of the church. Pope Alexander III. exempted them from paying tithes for such lands as they owned or rented; Gregory II., from payment of tithes on the produce of mines which they held in their own hands; and other popes confirmed them in the enjoyment of these privileges. King Henry II. specially favored the abbey with his protection, and granted the monks and their servants freedom from tolls in all cities, boroughs, markets, fairs, bridges, and ports, in England and Normandy; and Henry III. conferred on them secular jurisdiction in their manors of Sutton and Clifton, in Yorkshire, and at Wardecop, in Westmoreland.

It is not at all surprising that wealth flowed in upon the monastic establishments. They were compelled, as a matter of necessity, to pay attention to the cultivation of the soil; for there were few towns, and the division of employments had not extended in such a manner as to render it safe for a body of men, placed in a secluded part of the country, to depend for the necessities of life upon the surplus produce of the agriculturist. They might, perhaps, have been supported by the free-will offerings of the devout; but when the gifts which were made them consisted almost wholly of land, it was much more natural that they should attempt to improve it by cultivation; and as there did not exist a large class like the present race of tenant-farmers until the period just preceding the dissolution, agricultural pursuits were forced, in some measure, upon the religious communities. To this occupation they would bring a greater degree of intelligence than the other classes of society possessed; and the improvements which were slowly introduced in agriculture would most probably be frequently discovered, or at least practised, at an early period in the monastic granges. Information circulated among these communities from one end of Europe to the other, and a constant interchange of ideas was kept up by means of general chapters of each order—by pilgrimages, and various necessities connected with their common interests. The skill which they possessed as agriculturists there is every reason to conclude was superior to that of any other class, and the gardens attached to the monasteries occupied much attention, and exhibited the earliest improvements in that useful department of husbandry. The consequence was, that the religious houses increased in wealth, and, becoming more secular, they lost their empire over the religious sentiments of the age, and were regarded with jealousy by the parochial clergy. The monks were liberal and hospitable. They relieved the poor, were moderate in the rents which they exacted, and took no excessive fines in the leases which they renewed. But at the dissolution they had outlived the useful purposes to which they were once subservient. The better education which the laity were beginning to receive qualified them for state employments, and ecclesiastics began to lose the direction of public affairs. The influence of the monastic orders also declined, in consequence of the increased activity of society opening to the laity more frequent opportunities of pursuing a career of usefulness. The laity multiplied books, and in the walks of literature and science pressed upon the heels of the churchmen. In time the latter ceased to be the exclusive lights of the age. Pope Ganganelli remarked: "The religious orders have not been gifted with infallibility, nor with indefectibility. If they were to be all abolished this day, the loss would be great; but the church would be neither less holy, less apostolical, nor less respectable."

The general measures which preceded the dissolution of the monasteries have already been described. When Henry VIII. consulted with his council on this subject, one was of opinion that "there is a due place left for monasteries; yet, when they grow to that multitude, that either the just proportion they bear in a state is exceeded, or they become a receptacle only for lazy and idle persons, it is fit to apply some convenient remedy. Therefore, be pleased, sir, not to think so much of their overthrow as their reformation." Another of the council remarked, that "the clergy had one fourth part of all the revenues of the kingdom; that this was an undue proportion; and that two or three monasteries left in every shire would be sufficient." The result was, that the first blow at the monastic institutions was aimed only at the smaller monasteries, which were the least able to offer resistance; but the whole were soon afterward surrendered.

Byland abbey was not included in the number of monasteries which were first dissolved, and by the king's letters-patent, dated January 28, 1537, it was refounded;



Byland Abbey, Yorkshire, from a Drawing by W. Westall, A.R.A.

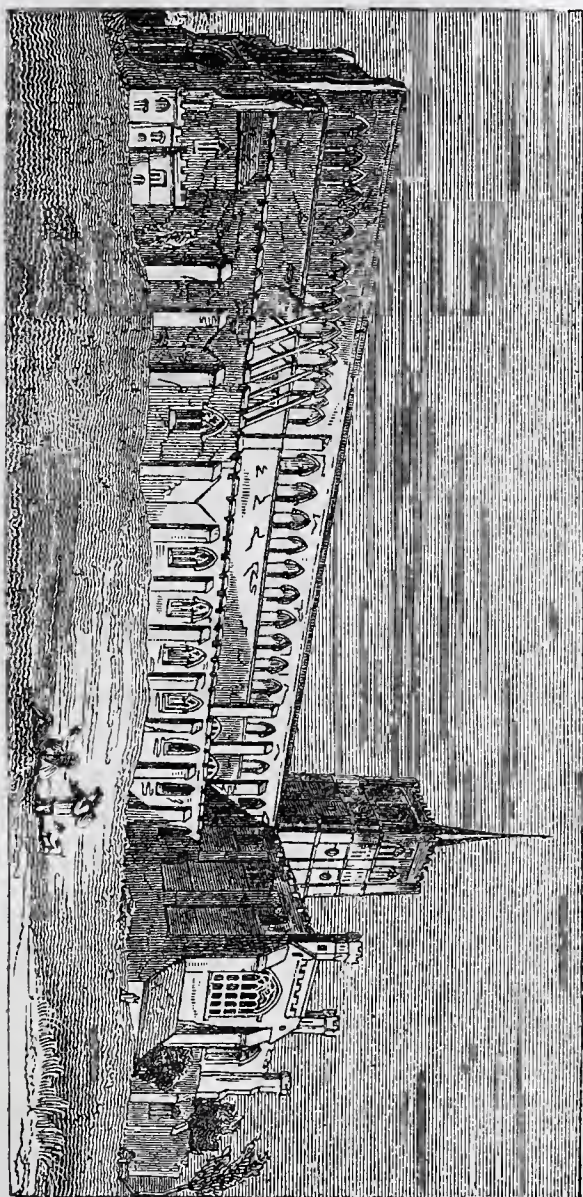
but two years afterward it was surrendered, when the abbot and monks received pensions. There were seven bells in the abbey, and it contained five hundred and sixteen ounces of plate. The lead which was stripped off the building amounted to one hundred fodder, and, with the bells and plate, was sold for the king's use. The gross income of the institution was 295*l.* 5*s.* 4*d.*; the net income, 238*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.*

Mr. Moore, an antiquarian, who visited Byland abbey about the year 1789, states, that it is of a date and style of architecture nearly coeval with Rievaulx, and that it is nearly five miles distant from it across a moor, from which, in descending a steep hill, the prospect of a fine country and of this abbey opens itself, and presently leads to the village. All that remains of Byland is comparatively a fragment, but it is sufficient to show that the abbey must have been a fine specimen of church architecture. The doorway is richly ornamented, and the windows elegantly formed.

St. Alban's is, in many respects, one of the towns of England most dignified by historical associations. It was one of the principal places of the ancient Britons before the Roman conquest; and, within twenty-one years after the invasion of the island, was raised by the Romans to the rank of a city, under the name of Verulam. Many considerable fragments of the Roman Verulam still exist, at a short distance from the present town, particularly a large piece of wall, constructed of Roman tile, now called Gorhambury block. Dr. Stukely, a celebrated antiquarian writer, has calculated that about a hundred acres were included within the Roman wall. The greater part of the city, first built by the Romans, was demolished by Britons, under Queen Boadicea, in the 61st year after the birth of Christ; but it was soon rebuilt, and the inhabitants continued under the protection of the Romans for a long period. In the persecution of the Christians under the Roman emperor Dioclesian, in the year 304, Alban, a native of Verulam, who had been a soldier at Rome, suffered martyrdom for his faith; and being the first Briton who had been put to death for his religious opinions, he is called England's proto-martyr, or first martyr, as St. Stephen is called the proto-martyr of Christianity. In 795, Offa, king of the Mercians, founded an abbey at Holmhurst, close by the ancient Verulam, in honor of St. Alban, and the place was thenceforward called St. Alban's. The abbey flourished for more than seven centuries. Its buildings, erected from time to time, resembled a town more than a religious house. It had magnificent apartments, in which the kings of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries were frequently entertained. The annual revenues, during its greatest prosperity, were valued at 2,500 pounds, an enormous sum in those days.

Of this immense establishment, nothing is left but the present conventual church, a gate-house, and a few scattered walls. The church, which was principally erected in the reign of William Rufus, is in magnitude equal to our largest cathedrals. It measures five hundred and fifty feet from east to west; if we include a chapel at one end, six hundred and six feet. The extreme breadth, at the intersection of the transepts, is two hundred and seventeen feet. The exterior of this great pile is not very beautiful; but the spectator is struck with its vastness, its simplicity, and its appearance of extreme age. A large part of the original edifice is composed of materials taken from the ruins of the ancient Verulam, consisting chiefly of Roman tile. These portions of the interior are very rude, and form a striking contrast to other parts which were finished after the elegant Norman style was adopted in this country. In this manner it occurs that we see at St. Alban's a mixture of the round and the pointed arch, in two sides of the same building, directly opposite each other. It is singular that, as one side of the building fell into decay, the later style of architecture, that of the pointed arch, should have been used, while the more ancient round arch was suffered to remain on the opposite side. This want of uniformity greatly diminishes the beauty of the interior; but, still, many of its effects are remarkably striking, particularly that of the vast length of the church from east to west. Some parts of the edifice furnish, also, beautiful and perfect specimens of the most delicate workmanship.

The abbey-church of St. Alban's contains the monuments of several illustrious men, particularly that of Duke Humphrey, of Gloucester, the brother of Henry V. But St. Alban's possesses the much higher distinction of being the burial-place, as it was the abode, of the great Lord Bacon. The old church of St. Michael, in this town, contains the remains of the immortal founder of the inductive philosophy, which delivered the human mind from the tyranny of opinions established by pre-



The Abbey of St. Alban's.

scription and authority, and led the way for every man to think for himself, and to rely upon the truths of established facts alone as the materials for his conclusions. The engraving below is a representation of Lord Bacon's monument.

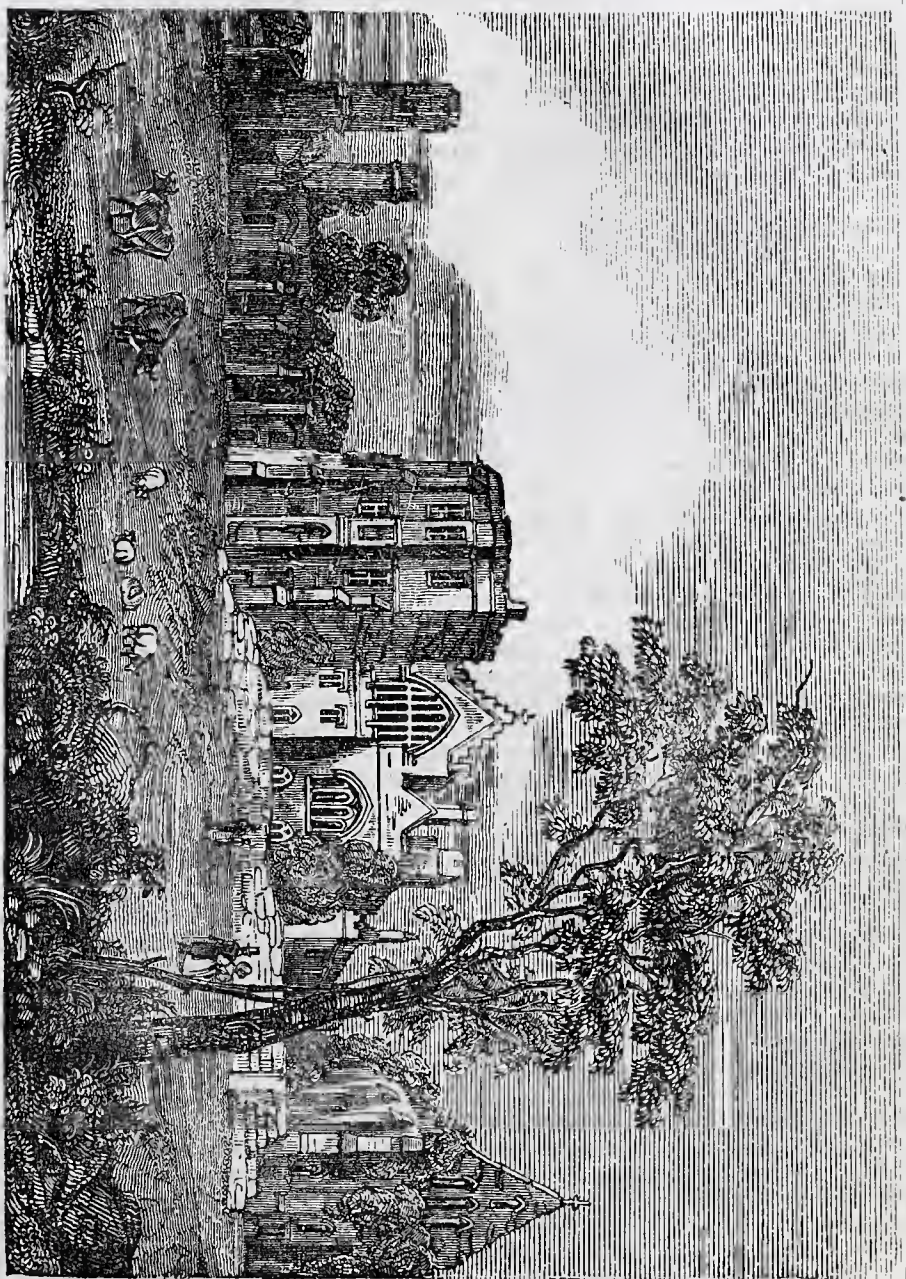


Lord Bacon's monument.

The famous and once splendid ecclesiastical foundation of Battle abbey owes its origin to the great battle between King Harold and William of Normandy, which deprived the former of his crown, and decided, at one of the most critical stages of her history, the fate of England. It has been repeatedly stated from Camden, in modern publications, that the village of Battle was known before this event, by the name of Epiton. But this, as Mr. Gough many years ago remarked, is a mistake of the venerable antiquary, founded on an expression of the old chronicler, Ordericus Vitalis, who uses the term Epiton, or rather, Epitumium, merely for any field of battle. Ducange had long before explained the word in his glossary. As to the village, it is expressly stated in old documents to have gradually sprung up around the abbey, and there is no reason to suppose that it existed at all before that building was erected. There seems, however, to have been a church on or near the spot, in more ancient times, which was known by the name of the Church of St. Mary in the Wood. The neighboring country remained covered with trees, down at least to the Conquest; and this church was doubtless intended for the use of the peasants who were scattered up and down over the forest.

The town of Battle, which, with the parish, contains about three thousand inhabitants, stands on rising ground, about eight miles northwest from Hastings. It commands a rich and extensive prospect, comprehending the expanse of the ocean to the south, and a sweep of highly-cultivated country in all other directions. The village itself consists principally of a single street, which runs up the declivity, and at a little distance from the termination of which, on the top, stands the abbey.

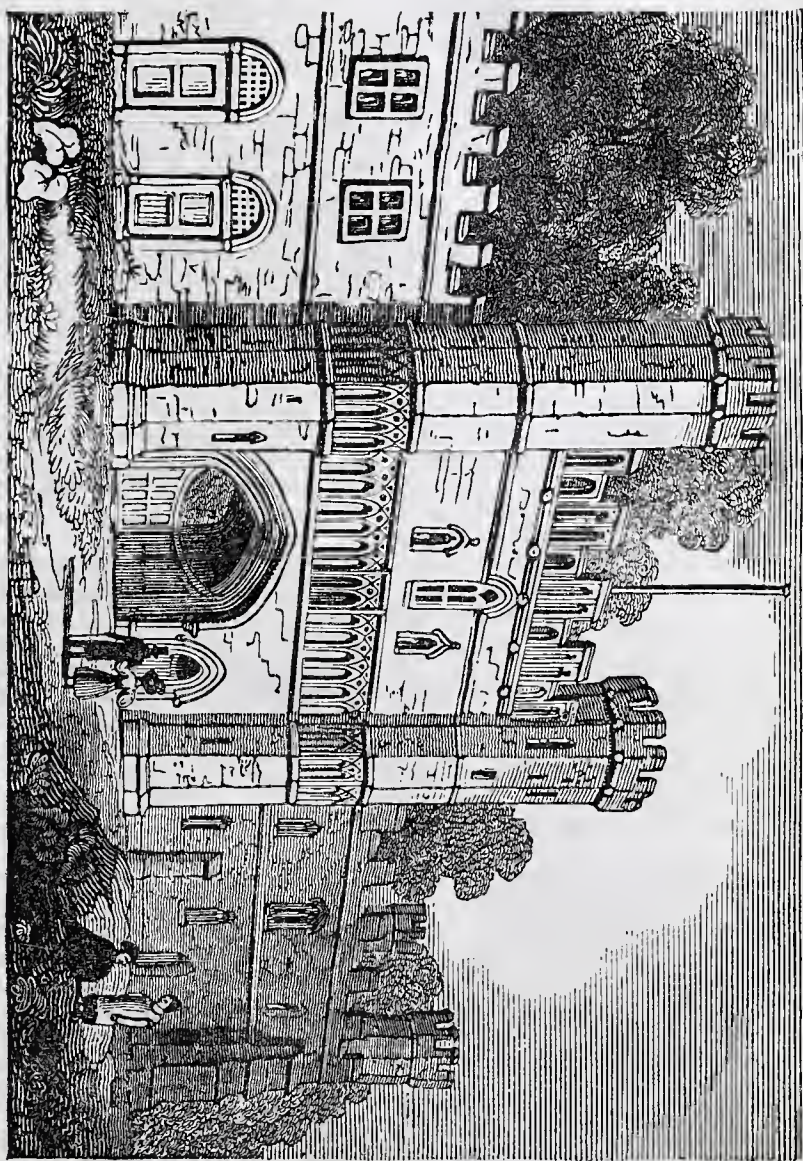
It was on the 28th of September, 1066, that William of Normandy landed at Pevensey, or Pemsey, as it is commonly called, on the Sussex coast, about nine miles



Battle Abbey, Sussex.

to the west of Hastings, at the head of the powerful armament with which he intended to win a kingdom. Harold was at the time in the north, where he had just achieved a great victory over another band of foreign invaders, the Norwegians, headed by their king, who fell in the fight. Owing, probably, to this circumstance, no attempt was made to oppose the landing of William. That leader, as soon as he had got his troops on shore, commenced the erection of a fort on the spot, and sunk, or as some authorities assert, burnt his ships, which are said to have been above nine hundred in number, without reckoning small craft. They must have been vessels of such size as to carry fifty or sixty men each. It was some time before Harold made his appearance, to repel this aggression upon his dominions. But the two armies met at last, on the 14th of October, the birthday of the English king. Harold on that morning was posted on the eminence now occupied by the village of Battle, and his adversary on another rising ground, a short distance to the south. A very full and animated account of the fight which ensued (commonly called the battle of Hastings), has lately been given in an able publication, entitled "The Biographical History of England," the writer of which has evidently made himself very completely master of the details given by the various old French and Latin chroniclers, and has caught, also, not a little of their graphic spirit. The narrative is a great deal too long to be given entire, but we shall select a few passages, sufficient to present at least an outline of the course of the battle.

"About nine in the morning, the Norman army began to move, crossed the interval between the two hills, and slowly ascended the eminence on which the English were posted. The banner of St. Peter, as a presage of victory, was borne in the van by Tostain the Fair—a dangerous honor, which two of the barons had successively declined. Harold beheld them gradually advance, and as the third division appeared, he broke out into violent exclamations of anger and dismay. He had the advantage of the ground, and having secured his flank by trenches, he resolved to stand upon the defensive, and to avoid all action with the cavalry, in which he was inferior. The men of Kent were placed in front, a privilege which they always claimed as their due. The Londoners had the honor of being the royal body-guard, and were posted around the standard. The king himself, on foot, took his station at the head of the infantry, determined to conquer or perish in the action. The Normans rushed to the onset, shouting their national tocsin, 'God is our help!' which was loudly answered by the adverse cry of 'Christ's cross! the holy cross!' The battle soon became general, and raged with great fury. The Norman archers advancing, discharged their weapons with effect; but they were received with equal valor by the English, who firmly kept their ground. After the first shower of arrows, they returned to the attack with spears and lances; and again they were obliged to retire, unable to make any impression on their opponents. The battle had continued with desperate obstinacy; and from nine till three in the afternoon, the success on either side was nearly balanced. Disappointed and perplexed at seeing his troops everywhere repulsed by an unbroken wall of courageous soldiers, the Norman general had recourse to a stratagem. He resolved to hazard a feigned retreat; and a body of a thousand horse were ordered to take flight. The artifice was successful. The credulous English, in the heat of action, followed, but their temerity was speedily punished with terrible slaughter. Still the great body of the army maintained its position; for so long as Harold lived and fought, they seemed to be invincible. A little before sunset, an arrow, shot at random, pierced his eye; he dropped from his steed in agony, and the knowledge of his fall relaxed the efforts of his followers. A furious charge of the Norman horse increased the confusion which the king's wound must have occasioned. For a time, the Kentish men and East Saxons seemed to retrieve the fortune of the day. At length, the English banner was cut down, and the papal colors, erected in its place, announced that William of Normandy was the conqueror. It was now late in the evening, but such was the obstinacy of the vanquished, that they continued the struggle in many parts of the bloody field, long after dark. The carnage was great. On the part of the conquerors, nearly sixty thousand men had been engaged, and of these more than one fourth were left dead on the field. The number of the English and the amount of their loss are unknown. The vanity of the Normans has exaggerated the army of the enemy beyond the bounds of credibility; but the native writers reduce it to a handful of resolute warriors. The historians of both countries agree, that with Harold and his brothers perished all the nobility of the south of England."



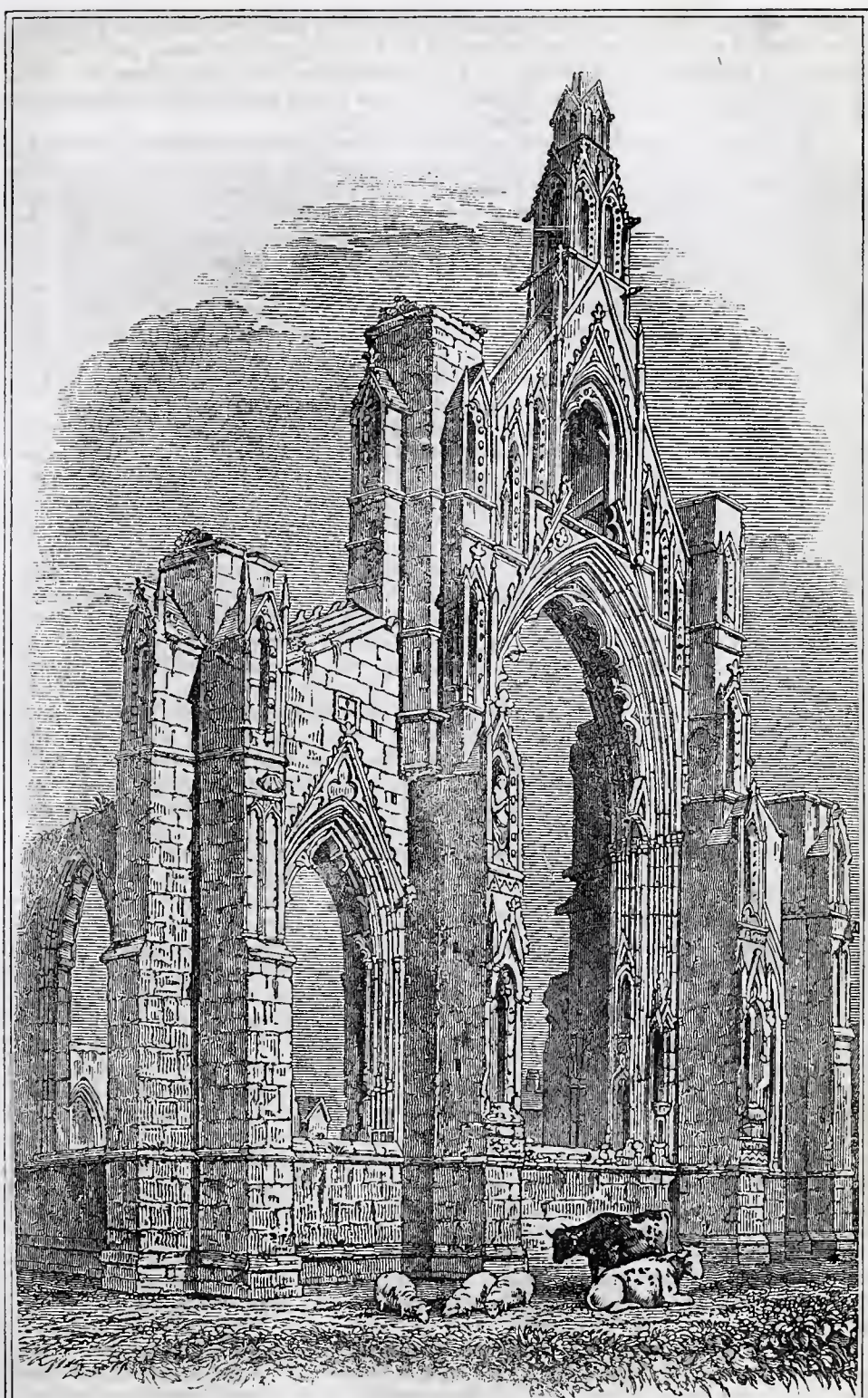
The Gateway at Battle Abbey, Sussex.

The erection of Battle abbey was commenced by the conqueror in conformity, it is said, with a vow which he had made before the fight, but was not completed till 1094, in the reign of Rufus. The high altar is asserted to have been placed on the spot where the dead body of Harold was found. It is more probable, however, as other authorities record, that the spot was that on which the royal standard was raised at the commencement of the battle. The house was originally intended to contain one hundred and forty monks, but only sixty were placed in it, who were brought from the monastery of Marmoustier in Normandy. Many manors, chiefly in the counties of Kent, Surrey, Sussex, Oxford, and Berks, were bestowed upon it, along with the most ample privileges, exemption from all taxation, the rights of free warren, treasure trove, and sanctuary, independence of episcopal jurisdiction, and to the abbot, the singular prerogative of pardoning any condemned thief or robber whom he should meet on his way to execution. Numerous charters, granted by the conqueror, by William Rufus, by Henry I., and by other kings, down to Henry IV., in favor of this establishment, are still preserved, copies of several of which may be seen in Dugdale's *Monasticon*. Its possessions, in course of time, were greatly extended, through the liberality of its regal patrons. The abbot enjoyed the dignity of wearing the mitre, and was always summoned to parliament so long as the ancient religion lasted. The last individual who held the office was named John Hamond. He was elected in 1529, and in 1538 he surrendered the monastery to the king. According to the valuation which had been taken a few years before, its revenues amounted to 880*l.*, according to Dugdale, but Speed says to 987*l.* Hamond retired on a pension of 66*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*

After the dissolution, the property was granted to a person named Gilmer, who after pulling down a great part of the buildings and disposing of the materials, sold the place to Sir Anthony Browne. The latter soon after commenced the erection of a dwelling-house on the site of part of the old monastery, which was finished by his son, the first Lord Montague. This building, however, fell afterward into ruins; but the estate having been purchased by Sir Thomas Webster, the ancestor of the present Sir Godfrey Webster, a new house was erected, which still exists. It forms one of the sides of what appears to have been originally a complete quadrangle, of great spaciousness. The entire circuit of the ruins of the abbey, indeed, is not much short of a mile. Only a fragment of the church now remains, from which it is impossible to trace either its form or extent; but there are still to be seen some arches of the cloisters, a hall called the refectory, about one hundred and fifty feet in length, and another building, detached from the rest, exhibiting the remains of an immense room, one hundred and sixty-six feet in length by thirty-five in breadth, the walls of which are still adorned by twelve windows on one side, and six on the other. This is supposed to have been the great hall, in which the abbot and his monks gave their more solemn entertainments. Good living seems to have been cultivated in the establishment. The ample kitchen still exhibits the remains of no fewer than five fireplaces.

One of the most striking parts of the ruin is the great gate at the entrance of the quadrangle, of which the foregoing engraving is a representation. It is supposed to be of the reign of Henry VI., and with its battlemented towers, is a very imposing structure. Until about fifty years ago, the apartment over the gateway was used as a townhouse; but on the 18th of September, 1794, the roof was driven in by a violent storm of wind and rain, and it has not since been repaired.

Howden, in the East Riding of Yorkshire, is situated about a mile from the Ouse. It contains twelve townships, two chapelries, and about 4,500 inhabitants. This church and manor were in possession of the crown at the period of the conquest, and were given by the Norman monarch to the bishop of Durham, who obtained a confirmation of the grant from Pope Gregory VII. The bishop vested the church in the monks of Durham, but retained the manor. Thus the prior and convent of Durham obtained ecclesiastical jurisdiction in Howdenshire; and the bishop, being lord of the manor, was invested with extensive secular authority within the same district. The clergy were at that period the most enlightened men of the age, and from the position which they occupied, a large share of wealth and influence fell naturally into their hands. The intelligence, of which they were the chief and nearly exclusive possessors, has long ceased to be the inheritance of a particular class, and none are now excluded from the advantages which it confers. But though this change has been going on for a long period, it has only more recently begun to work out its



Howden Church.

natural results. By virtue of the manorial rights with which the bishops of Durham were invested eight centuries ago, they still held their copyhold courts, their freehold courts, and courts-baron, in Howden. The separation of the secular from the ecclesiastical functions of the bishops of Durham is now on the point of being effected, and Howdenshire will, of course, be affected by the change.

In the thirteenth century, a bull was issued, appropriating the church of Howden to sixteen monks; but the prior of Durham successfully exerted himself with the pope, and the church was rendered collegiate, with five prebendaries. Accordingly, in 1267, the archbishop of York, after setting forth that the parish church of Howden was very wide and large, and the rents and profits so much abounding as to be sufficient for many spiritual men, ordained that there should be endowed "for ever" five prebends out of its revenues, and that each of them should maintain, at his own proper cost, a priest and clerk in holy orders, to administer in the said church in a canonical habit, according to the custom of the church in York, except in matins, which they should say in the morning for the parish. There were five chantries, dedicated respectively to St. Thomas the Martyr, St. Mary, St. Catherine, St. Cuthbert, and St. Andrew. At the reformation, the net revenue of the prebends was 63*l.* 18*s.* 4*d.*

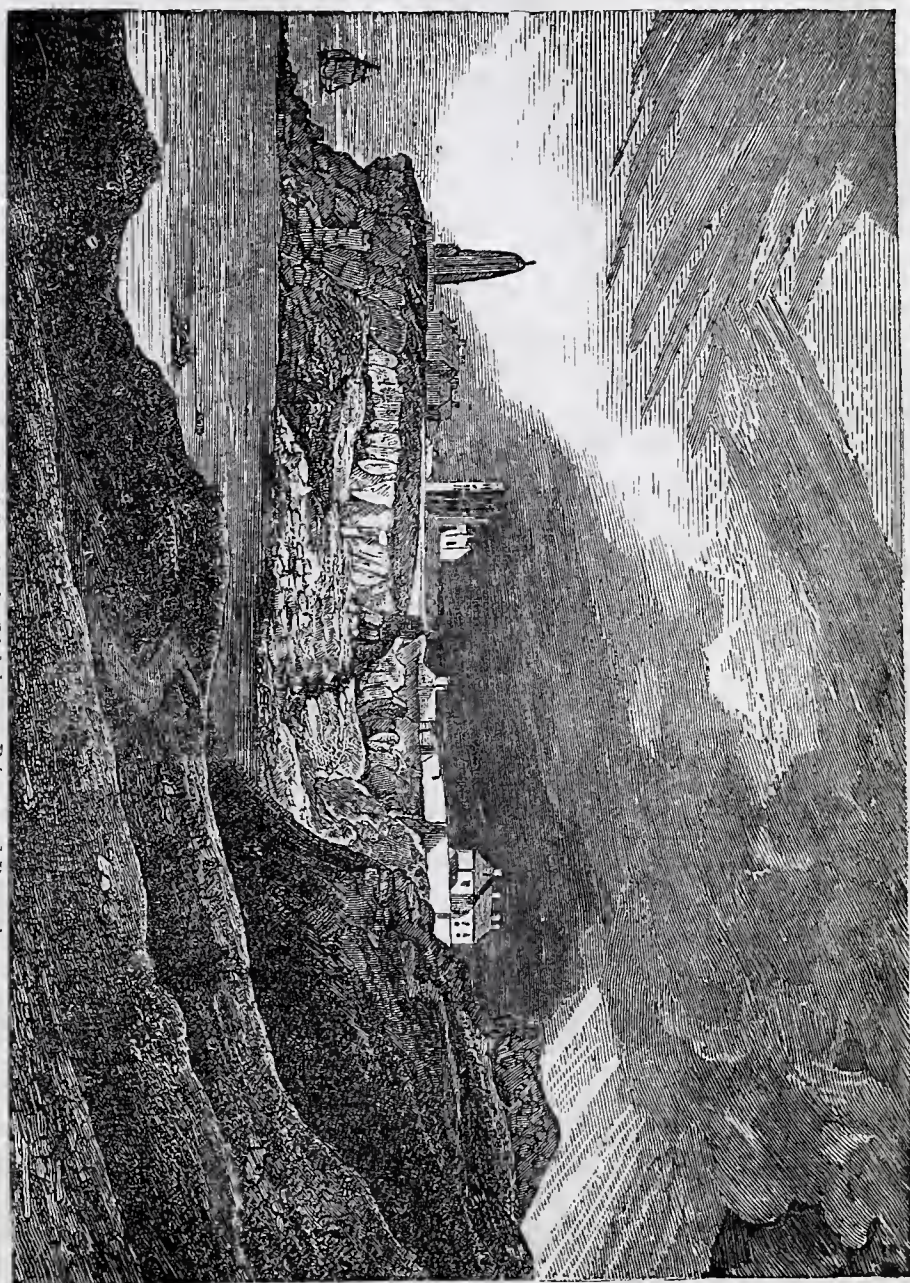
The collegiate church of Howden was dissolved in the first year of Edward VI., and the temporalities thereby became invested in the crown. Thus they remained till 1582, when Queen Elizabeth granted them by letters-patent to Edward Frost and John Walker, their heirs and assigns for ever. The tithes are now in the hands of several impropiators. The living is a vicarage in the gift of the crown, and is only worth 163*l.* per year, out of which the salary of a curate is paid. The revenues of the church in the thirteenth century were sufficient for the maintenance of "many spiritual men;" and if, at the dissolution of the church as a collegiate institution, these revenues had been reserved for public purposes, some provision might now have been made for religious instruction in the new port of Goole, only three miles from Howden, which, though containing only a few years ago some half-dozen houses, promises to become the resort of industry and a place of extensive commerce. There are at this moment two collegiate churches (at Heytesbury and Middleham), whose utility is, perhaps, not less than that of Howden at the period of its dissolution; but, instead of distributing their revenues to individuals, by which no security would be obtained for their beneficial employment, it is proposed by the commissioners, who have recently investigated such establishments, to render them subservient to public use, by bestowing their endowments in quarters in which they are really needed.

When the church of Howden had got into private hands, the work of decay soon became visible. In 1591 the churchwardens directed a survey to be made, for the purpose of ascertaining "what decay the choir of Howden church is in, whether it be in timber, in stone, in lead, or glass." No effectual repairs appear to have resulted from the investigation; for the choir becoming altogether unsafe, the parishioners, in 1634 and 1636, fitted up the nave for the celebration of public worship. In 1696 the groined roof fell in, and from that time the east end has been but a venerable memorial of its former magnificence. The church is built in the form of a cross, with a square tower one hundred and thirty-five feet in height. The chapter-house was formerly the most celebrated portion of the edifice. It was built in the thirteenth century, and contained thirty stalls, each under a Gothic arch, separated by clustered pilasters, very small, and of delicate form, having foliated capitals of pierced work, from which rich tabernacle-work rose, and formed a canopy for each stall. The tower of the chapter-house fell in 1750. The whole length of the church, including the ruins, is two hundred and fifty-five feet, and the breadth sixty-six feet. The length of the choir is one hundred and twenty feet, and of the nave one hundred and fifty feet, and the breadth of each is sixty-six feet.

Nearly close to the church the bishops of Durham had an ancient palace, which was their frequent summer residence. A park extended from it to the Ouse, distant about a mile. The ruins of this ancient edifice have been occupied as a farmhouse.

The old ruin of Tynemouth priory is situated in Northumberland, and stands on a peninsula, formed of stupendous rocks, on the north side of the mouth of the river Tyne, and to the east of the town of Tynemouth. It is of very remote antiquity—earlier than the eighth century; but no authentic record appears to exist, respecting its original foundation.

The choice of the situation, however, appears to have been dictated by two mo-



Tynemouth Cliff, with the Lighthouse, Priory, and Barrack.

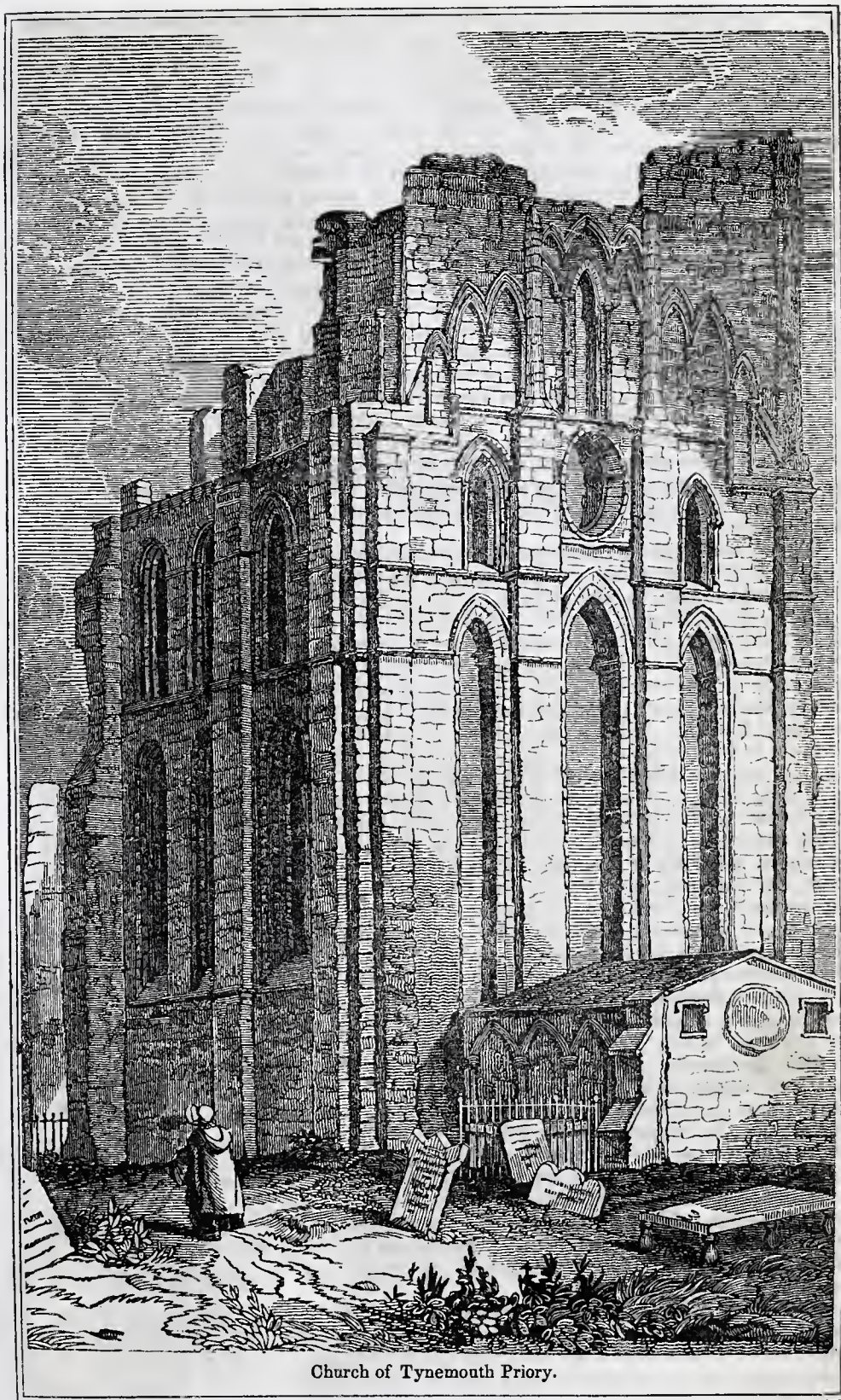
tives, security and gain. The exalted height on which the monastery stood, rendered it visible at sea, a long way off, in every direction, where it presented itself, as if reminding and exhorting seamen in danger to make their vows, and promise masses and presents to the Virgin Mary and St. Oswin. Thus, therefore, though during stormy and inclement weather the situation must have been very unpleasant, yet in those unsettled and credulous times it afforded the advantage of presenting to the eye of the sailor in distress an object toward which he could direct his prayers and bend his course, and also an outpost from which a hostile armament might be descried, and an alarm communicated. Neither its utility nor sanctity, however, could preserve it; for in the infancy of the establishment it suffered greatly by the incursions of the Danes, by whom, as the old chronicles state, it was thrice plundered, the church at one time being burned to the ground. Tosti, Earl of Northumberland, in the reign of Edward the Confessor, is said to have rebuilt and endowed the priory for black canons, dedicating it to the honor of the Virgin Mary and St. Oswin, the remains of that saint having been found among the ruins.

That the situation, at the mouth of a river, and on an elevated site, early recommended the place, as suitable both for military defence and religious purposes, is evident from the fact that Robert de Mowbray, about the year 1090, fled thither, and defended himself within its walls, against William Rufus, against whom he had conspired; but, after a time, finding that he could hold out no longer, he sought "sanctuary" at the altar of the church, from which, however, he was taken by force, carried to Windsor, and after suffering a tedious imprisonment, was put to death. The monastery at one time enjoyed considerable wealth. It possessed twenty-seven manors in Northumberland, with their royalties, besides other valuable lands and tenements. At the dissolution, in 1539, there was a prior, with fifteen prebendaries and three novices. The annual revenues of the priory were then estimated (separate from the abbey of St. Alban's, on which it depended) at 3977. 10s. 5d. by Dugdale, and at 5117. 4s. 1d. by Speed. The prior, on the surrender of the monastery, received a pension of 80*l.* per annum. The site and most of the lands were granted in the reign of Edward VI. to John Dudley; Earl of Northumberland; but by his attainder in the next year it reverted to the crown, in which it remained till the time of Elizabeth, during whose reign it was occupied as a fortress.

During the civil war, it was besieged and taken by the Scots, in 1644, when thirty-eight pieces of ordnance, and a large store of arms, ammunition, and provisions, fell into their hands. The garrison were allowed to march out with their baggage, but bound themselves to submit to the instructions of parliament. A sum of 5000*l.* was voted to repair the damages it had sustained. Colonel Henry Lilburne was made its deputy-governor; but having declared for the king, Sir Arthur Hazelrig immediately marched from Newcastle against him, and stormed the place with almost ferocious bravery, the men entering the fortress at the very cannon's mouth. During the assault, Lilburne was slain.

The approach to the priory is from the west, by a gateway tower of a square form, having a circular exploratory turret on each corner; from this gateway, on each hand, a strong double wall has been extended to the rocks on the seashore, which from their great height have been esteemed in former times inaccessible. The gate, with its walls, was fortified by a deep outward ditch, over which there was a drawbridge, defended by moles on each side. The tower comprehends an outward and interior gateway, the outer gateway having two gates, at the distance of about six feet from each other, the inner of which is defended by a portcullis and an open gallery; the interior gateway is, in like manner, strengthened by a double gate. The space between the gateways being a square of about six paces, is open above to allow those on the top of the tower and battlements to annoy assailants who had gained the first gate.

On passing the gateway, the scene is strikingly noble and venerable; the whole enclosed area may contain about six acres; the walls seem as well calculated for defence as the gateway tower; the view is crowded with august ruins; many fine arches of the priory are standing. The most beautiful part of these remains is the eastern limb of the church, of elegant workmanship. The ruins are so disunited, that it would be very difficult to determine to what particular offices each belong. The ruins which present themselves in front, on entering the gateway, appear to be the remains of the cloister, access to which was afforded by a gateway of circular arches, comprehending several members inclining inward, and arising from pilas-



Church of Tynemouth Priory.

ters. After passing this gate, in the area many modern tombs appear, the ground being still used for sepulture. The west gate entering into the abbey is still entire, of the same architecture as that leading to the cloister. The ground from the cloister to the south wall is almost covered with foundations, which, it is presumed, are the remains of the priory. Two walls of the church are standing; the end wall to the east contains three long windows; the centre window, the loftiest, is near twenty feet high, richly ornamented with mouldings, some of which are of rose-work, and others of the dancette, as the figure is termed in heraldry, or zigzag, a decoration common to old Saxon architecture. Beneath the centre window, at the east end, is a doorway of excellent workmanship, conducting to a small, but elegant apartment, which is supposed to have contained the shrine and tomb of St. Oswin. On each side of the door is a human head, cut in a style much superior to that of the general taste of the age in which they are supposed to have been executed.

The manor of Tynemouth belongs to the duke of Northumberland. But the site of the monastery is said to belong to the crown; and it was held under a lease by Colonel Henry Villars, formerly governor of Tynemouth. Villars obtained permission to erect a lighthouse, and to receive one shilling for every English, and sixpence for every foreign ship anchoring in the harbor of Shields. It is stated by Grose, and the statement is repeated in the "Border Antiquities," that Villars pulled down many of the old buildings to obtain materials for erecting the lighthouse, an adjoining barrack, his own house, &c., and that he stripped off the lead, which, till then, had covered the church. In the engraving (page 155) the relative positions of all these buildings are shown. That on the right being the barrack, the others can not be mistaken.

Those portions of the county palatine of Durham, which are known as North Durham, and which lie on the north side of the river Tyne, are divided into Bedlingtonshire, Norhamshire, and Islandshire. The two latter are contiguous upon the southern bank of the Tweed, and the former consists of a district upon the southern coast of Northumberland. The so-called shires of Norham and Island are coextensive with parishes bearing the same names, and may be considered as the most ancient possessions of the see of Durham. The parish of Island, or Holy Island, in its southern extremity, extends to that part of the right bank of the Tweed where it falls into the sea at Berwick, and reaches on the east from the sea again to the Tweed on the north: it is divided into the five chapelries of Holy Island, the mother-church, Kyloe, Lowick, Ancroft, and Tweedmouth. This parish derives its historical importance as containing the island from which Christianity first shed her benignant rays on Northumberland; and which for four centuries was, not only the episcopal residence of the see which is now known as the bishopric of Durham, but the repository of learning in the north of England. This island the ancient Britons called *Inis Medicante*, but its familiar appellation was *Lindisfarn*, until the sanctity of its inhabitants procured for it the name of *Helichlant*, or Holy Island. According to Symeon, a monk of Durham, the island took its second name from the *Lindis*, a brook which empties itself into the sea from the opposite shore: "farn," the concluding syllable, is evidently a corruption of the Celtic word *fahren*, a recess. The greatest distance of Lindisfarn from the coast scarcely exceeds two miles; it is, as Bede has properly described it, a semi-island, being twice an island and twice part of the continent in one day: at the flow of the tide it is encompassed by water, and at the ebb there is almost a dry passage, both for horses and carriages. The depth of the water at ordinary high tides is about five, at spring-tides about seven feet. The path from the main land to the island at low water is a very precarious one, and is lengthened to about twice the actual distance between the two places by pools and quicksands, which have on too many occasions proved fatal to travellers—the parish register affording numerous instances of the burials of persons found drowned in crossing the sands to the island. The intervening space presents at low water a dull and dreary appearance, the only objects to enliven the scene being an occasional fisherman, his wife, or children, slowly picking their way across the sands, the rising of a flock of wild ducks, which they have disturbed, or the silver wings of a seamew sparkling in the sun.

Holy Island measures, from east to west, about two miles and a quarter in length, and its breadth, from north to south, is scarcely a mile and a half. At the northwest part there runs out a slip of land of about a mile in length: the circumference of the entire island comprehends about eight miles. It contains about one thousand acres,

above one half of which is, from the violence of the tempests, covered with sand, and produces nothing but bents; even this part, however, is valuable as a rabbit warren: the remainder is enclosed and cultivated. The enclosures bear such good crops that the inhabitants seldom find it necessary to have recourse to the main land for their corn, or the other ordinary productions of the ground. The island consists chiefly of one continuous plain, inclining to the southwest. The village stands upon an acclivity, which rises abruptly from the shore; and at the southern point of it there is a rock, of a conical figure, which rises almost perpendicularly to the height of sixty feet, and has on its lofty crown a small fortress or castle. A little to the northeast of the village there are four caves, the longest of which is upward of fifty feet long, and the entrance of which is just large enough to admit a man; over these caves a rock rises to the height of forty feet. The town or village of Holy Island consists of a few irregular narrow streets, the names of which are still preserved, although their importance has long departed, branching off from a small square called the Market-Place. In the middle of this place, a few years ago, there stood the stump of an old market-cross, which was called the "Petting Stone," over which newly-married people were made to leap for luck. Modern improvement has, however, removed this remnant of ancient times, and erected in its place a handsome new cross of Norman character. The town contains about one hundred houses, the great proportion of which are the humble cottages of the fishermen, who with their families constitute the chief part of the population (amounting to between four hundred and five hundred persons) of the island. There are very few good houses of ancient date; but the island having of late years become frequented as a bathing-place during the summer months, new ones have been erected, to be let out as lodgings for the accommodation of the visitors. Many of the fishermen's cottages are evidently of ancient date, not a few having, in all probability, witnessed the priory in its glory; while in the more modern ones is to be seen here and there a window with stone stanchells, or an old weather-beaten oak door, which prove themselves to have been part of the dismantled church. The old houses thus give to the town an air of antiquity, while those which have been more recently erected bestow on the whole place a neat and comfortable appearance. The shore is in many parts excellent for bathing, and the situation is both healthy and romantic. The north and east parts of the coast are formed of perpendicular rocks, and the other sides sink by gradual declinations toward the sea.

The castle stands upon a rock, and is accessible only by a winding pass cut on its southern side; it belongs to the crown, and is still looked on as a fortress by government, although it would avail little against any ship of considerable force: a few soldiers are generally stationed in it, in connexion with the garrison of Berwick. Formerly its battery was mounted with seven or eight large guns, but these implements of war were removed by order of the war office in the year 1819, and have not been since restored. The magnificence of the prospect from the walls can not be surpassed: on the north the eye is arrested, after passing over an arm of the sea about seven miles in breadth, by the ancient and fortified town of Berwick; on the south, at about an equal distance, Bamborough castle appears, elevated on a projecting promontory; toward the east there is an unlimited view of the sea, sometimes rough and gloomy, and at other times calm and resplendent, and scattered over with vessels; while on the west, after passing over the narrow channel by which the land is insulated, the shore exhibits for miles the rich and fertile districts of Islandshire and Northumberland, ornamented with the seats of the descendants of the ancient border chiefs, with their neat villages and accompanying woodlands. The antiquity of the castle is not accurately known; but a stronghold is known to have been erected where the present building stands, in order to protect the monks from the incursions of the Danes. It was formerly of considerable importance, for, according to Rushworth (who was the recorder of Berwick), it was seized by order of parliament, during the civil war with Charles I., "it being of such consequence to the northern parts of the kingdom." During the rebellion of 1715, the seizure of this castle was planned and executed by two men only, friends of the Pretender, whose courage and sagacity would doubtless have entitled them to high honors, had the cause been successful. The account is curious and interesting, and worthy of being more extensively known than it is. Lancelot Errington, a catholic of ancient and respectable family in Northumberland, but who himself was in comparatively reduced circumstances, having been promised assistance by Mr. Forster, the rebel general, moored a ship, of which

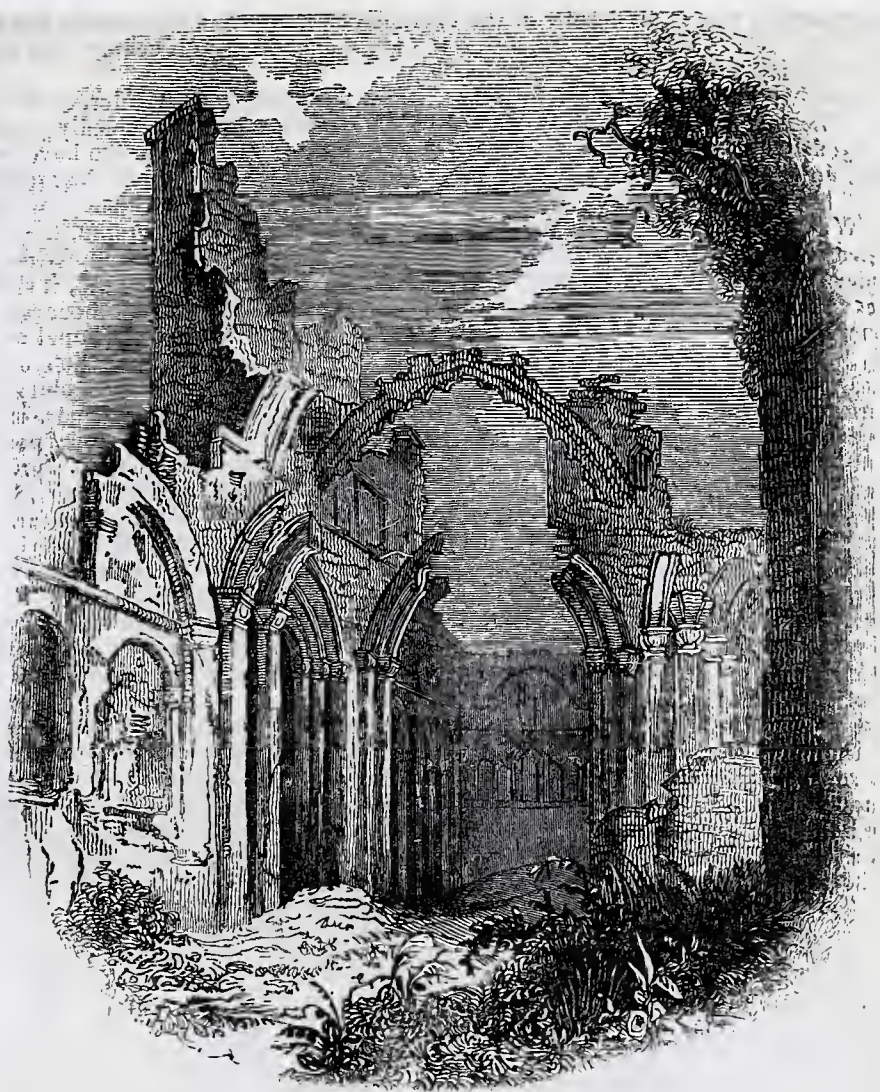
he was master, in Holy Island harbor, and, being well known in that part of the country, went, under pretence of wanting something, to the castle, the garrison of which consisted of a sergeant, a gunner, and ten men, and invited the sergeant and the men off duty on board his vessel. The invitation being accepted, he plied his guests so well with brandy that they were soon incapable of any opposition, and were secured. Lancelot, accompanied by his nephew, Mark Errington, then returned to the castle, where they knocked down the two sentinels, surprised and turned out the gunner and three other soldiers, and shutting the gates, hoisted the Pretender's colors as a signal of success, and anxiously awaited the promised succor. Instead, however, of a reinforcement, a party of the king's troops arrived from Berwick, and the captors were obliged to retreat over the walls of the castle, hoping to conceal themselves among the seaweeds until it was dark; but the tide rising, they were obliged to swim for their lives. They reached the rocks, in scrambling up which they were discovered and fired on; Lancelot having been wounded, they were both taken and conveyed to Berwick jail. While thus confined, they managed to dig a burrow under the foundations of the prison, depositing the earth taken out in an old oven. Through this burrow they escaped, and having reached the Tweed, they actually rowed themselves across the river in the customhouse boat, which when done with was turned adrift. They reached Bamborough castle, closely pursued by the soldiers; there they were concealed nine days in a peastack, a relative supplying them with food every night. With great difficulty they at last reached Sunderland, and got shipping for France. After the rebellion was suppressed, they took the benefit of the general pardon, and returned to Newcastle-upon-Tyne, where Lancelot died, in 1746, of grief, on hearing of the victory of Culloden.

The bishopric of Lindisfarn was founded A. D. 634, and the island was the residence of fourteen bishops, among whom was the celebrated St. Cuthbert, whose miraculous powers, both in life and death, Bede and the ancient chroniclers of the see of Durham have celebrated in stories calculated for the age in which they lived. Toward the close of the tenth century the see was removed (from the incursions of the Danes) to Chester le Street, and afterward to Durham; and in the commencement of the following century, Lindisfarn, so long the residence of episcopacy, became the seat of the priory of Holy Island. This priory, interesting and beautiful in its decay, was erected about the year 1094, and belonged, down to the time of its dissolution, to the monks of the order of St. Benedict. The Holy-Island monks, like those inhabiting all the border monasteries, appear to have seen great prosperity, as well as much adversity: at one period rich, with an income of 200*l.* per annum, at a time when such a sum was equivalent to 2000*l.* of the money of the present day; at another period their revenues were reduced to 32*l.* per annum, when the currency of the realm was in a state of great depreciation. After the removal of the see from the island, and from the establishment of the priory, the clergy of Lindisfarn lost the character they had before acquired for learning and piety. The antiquarian zeal of Mr. Raine has discovered that "their little library could at no period boast of a classical author, a chronicle, or one of Bede's numerous treatises; and it is a positive fact, that, from the year 1416 to the dissolution, they were frequently, and in fact generally, without a bible. They had their service-books for the church, some of which contained select portions of scripture as lessons, gospels, and epistles, to be periodically read and commented upon, and beyond them nothing more was necessary." After the dissolution of monasteries, the possessions of the priory were granted by Henry VIII. to the dean and chapter of Durham, to whom they still belong.

The priory of Holy Island is, as might be supposed from the date of its erection, of the Norman style of architecture—

" A solemn, huge, and dark red pile,
Placed on the margin of the isle."

In repairing the chancel, about the year 1441, the monks having altered the form of the roof, fell into a great mistake in their chariness of buttresses for its support. The side walls, being unable to resist the pressure of the roof, began to incline outward, and the roof ultimately fell to the ground; these walls still stand leaning outward in a singular manner. The church is in the form of a cross, the east and west limbs of which are still standing, while the other parts are totally in ruins and almost level with the ground. The tower of the church, which itself was the prototype of Durham cathedral, stands in the centre, and was supported by two large arches, stand-



Ruins of the Priory of Lindisfarne.

ing diagonally : one of them is yet standing, and, from its extreme lightness and fine proportions, forms the most beautiful object in the ruins. The arch is somewhat similar to that of the strangers' hall at Canterbury. Hutchinson, in his "View of Northumberland," thus notices it: "These ruins retain at this day one most singular beauty: the tower has not formed a lantern, as in most cathedrals, but from the angles arches sprang, crossing each other diagonally, to form a canopy roof. One of these arches yet remains, unloaded with any superstructure, supported by the south-east and northwest corner pillars, and ornamented with the dancette or zigzag moulding, extending a fine bow over the chasm and heap of ruins occasioned by the falling in of the aisles." The whole structure was, unfortunately for the ornaments, built of a soft, red freestone, the consequences of which have been noticed by Sir Walter Scott, in "Marmion:"—

"Not but the wasting sea-breeze keen
Had worn the pillar's carving quaint,
And mouldered in his niche the saint,
And rounded with consuming power
The pointed angles of each tower;
Yet still entire the abbey stood,
Like veteran, worn, but unsubdued."

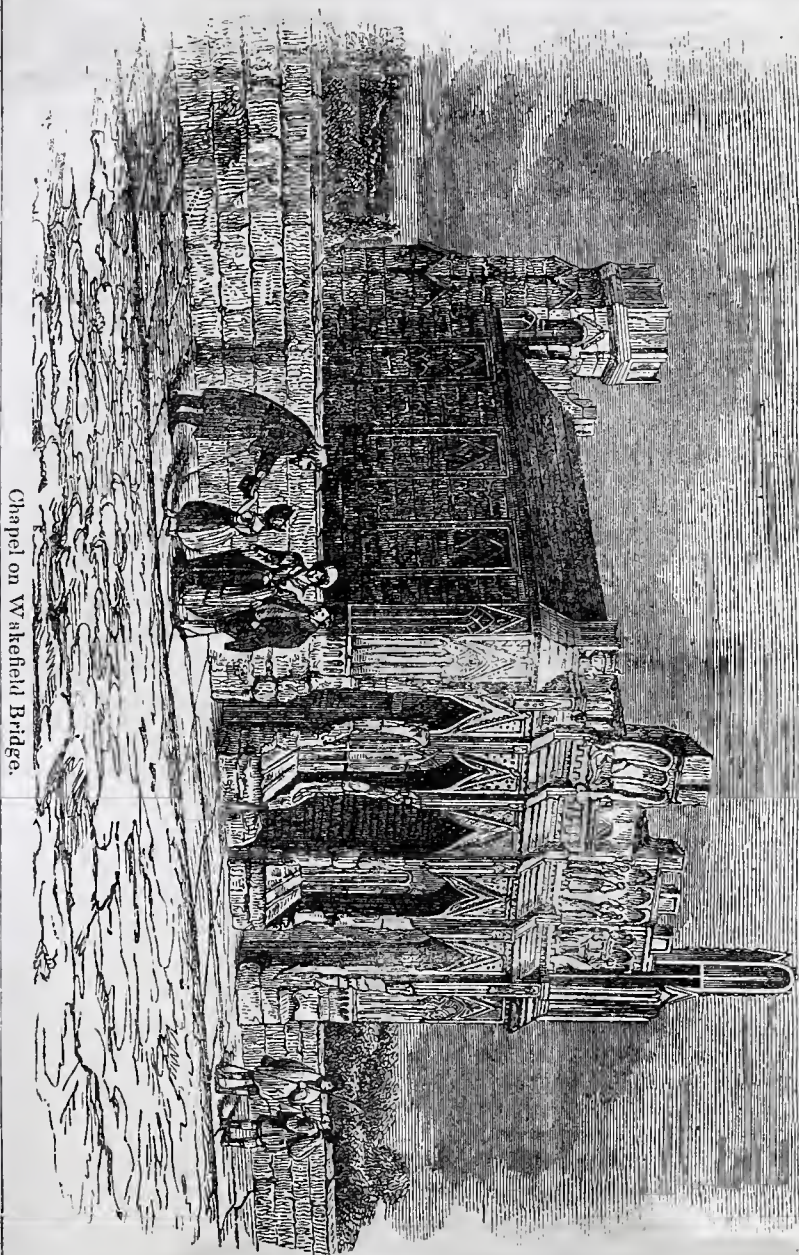
This venerable ruin is, in despite of the exertions of the lord of the manor, fast disappearing; and, in all probability, before the lapse of another half century, the walls of it remaining will be level with the earth.

On the handsome bridge of nine arches, which spans the river Calder, at Wakefield is the very beautiful remain of Edward IV.'s chapel. It is undoubtedly ancient, and stands upon the site of one built by Edward III., which appears to have been pulled down and rebuilt by Edward IV., in the most elaborate style of the architecture of his period, in memory of his father, Richard, Duke of York, who was slain near Wakefield, in the battle fought between him and Margaret of Anjou, the bold-spirited wife of Henry VI., in 1460. Edward IV. is therefore looked upon as the founder of the chapel. According to the following quotation from Leland, it should appear that the chapel was not alone indebted to the liberality of the monarch for its support. He says: "On the east side of the bridge is a right goodly chapel of our Lady, and two cantuarie [chantry] prestes founded in it of the fundation of the townesmen, as sum say, but the dukes of York were taken as founders, for obteyning the mortemayn. I heard one say that a servant of King Edward [IV.], or else of the Erle of Rutheland, brother to King Edward, was a great doer of it." Ten pounds per annum was the amount of the endowment for the payment of the two priests, which was withdrawn at the dissolution of the monasteries, since which period, the chapel has been allowed to fall into decay, and even within the last few years, its beautiful ornaments have received considerable damage. The chapel stands about the centre of the bridge, and as we have seen, on the east side. It projects over, and partly rests on the starlings of the bridge. Its general architecture is of the richest Gothic. Its dimensions are, in length about ten yards, in breadth eight. The east window, which overhangs the river, is adorned with traceries of the most delicate kind, and with perforated parapets. The west front is, however, the great feature of the building. It is divided in the lower part, by buttresses, into five compartments or recesses, having lofty pediments and pointed arches, in relief, with the spandrils richly flowered. Above is an entablature, with five smaller compartments with rounded arches, in relief, representing subjects from scripture. The whole is surmounted with battlements, part of which, however, as well as of the entablature, have been broken away. These different portions of the front are all enriched with such a profusion of delicately-beautiful ornaments, as to make the chapel quite an architectural gem.

CHAPTER XIII.

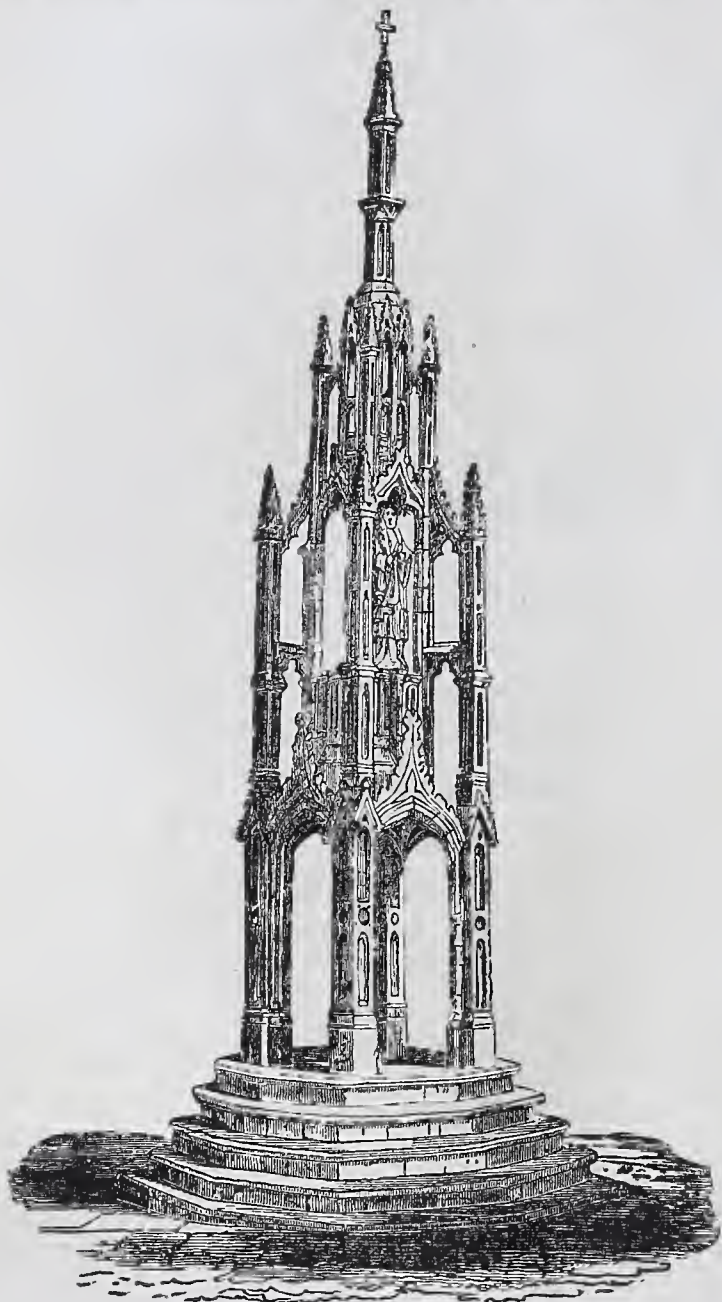
CROSSES.

CROSSES are a class of antique structures, kindred to that of abbeys. There are several of these still remaining in Britain. A writer remarks: The origin of market crosses seems obvious enough. The figure of the cross, during the middle ages, was the grand symbol of religion. It was placed everywhere—in churches, churchyards, by the roadside, to stimulate the devotions of the traveller, on spots where some event had occurred, the memory of which it was wished to perpetuate; and in public places where the people were in the habit of congregating. The use of the cross, therefore, to indicate the market-place, arose very naturally from the veneration paid to it. It served as a rallying point, and was also intended to excite devotional feelings in those assembled for the purpose of buying and selling. A large number of market towns were in the immediate neighborhood, and stood upon the soil, of abbeys. The country-people who came to dispose of their grain, poultry, eggs, butter, &c., had to pay certain tolls on their commodities; these were generally collected at the "cross," or market-place; and frequently advantage was taken of the assembling of the people, to address them from the cross on some particular topic. By an easy transition, the term "cross" came to be applied, not to the figure which marked the spot, but to the entire spot itself. Almost every town in Britain has its "cross," or public place.



Chapel on Wakefield Bridge.

The first crosses were simple in their construction ; if composed of stone, consisting merely of a single shaft, generally slightly elevated, and surmounted by a cross. Gradually they were converted into little structures, or buildings, of various forms, and adorned according to the taste or liberality of the founders. During the latter days of the Gothic, or rather the ecclesiastical architecture, the idea was adopted of enlarging the area where the cross stood, and arching it over, so as to afford a shelter during inclement weather, or, in the words of Leland, "for poore market folkes to stand dry when rayne cummeth." At the dissolution of the monasteries, almost every market-town in England had a cross, some of them exceedingly rich and elaborate in their architectural details. It is a matter of regret to the antiquary, and the lover of ancient monuments, that so few have been preserved.



Winchester Market Cross.

The engraving represents the market-cross of Winchester. In its adaptation to the uses of a market, it must yield to those of Chichester and Malmesbury; but as a work of art, it is undoubtedly the finest market-cross remaining in England. It is much to the credit of the then inhabitants of Winchester, that they saved it from destruction in 1770. Some commissioners of pavements had either sold it, or bargained for its removal, and the workmen had actually assembled in order to commence operation, when a number of the citizens gathered together, and by their spirited remonstrances, frustrated the attempt.

Mr. Britton terms the Winchester market-cross "a masterpiece of art." The period of its erection is uncertain; but it is assigned, with every appearance of probability, to the fifteenth century. It is supposed that a more ancient cross occupied the site before the erection of the present one. The cross stands in the High street of Winchester, nearly in the centre of the city. It is elevated on five stone steps, each of which gradually diminishes in size, and consists of three stories, adorned with open arches, niches, and pinnacles, surmounted with small crosses. It appears to have had four statues originally, but only one now remains, under one of the canopied niches on the second story. This is generally said to be St. John the Evangelist; but ecclesiastical antiquaries are of opinion that it represents some martyred saint, from the circumstance of the statue "bearing a palm-branch, the sure token of a martyr." Mr. Britton gives the following dimensions:—

"It now measures forty-three and a half feet from the ground to the summit; the lower tier of arches is seven feet ten inches high, and the statue is five feet ten inches."

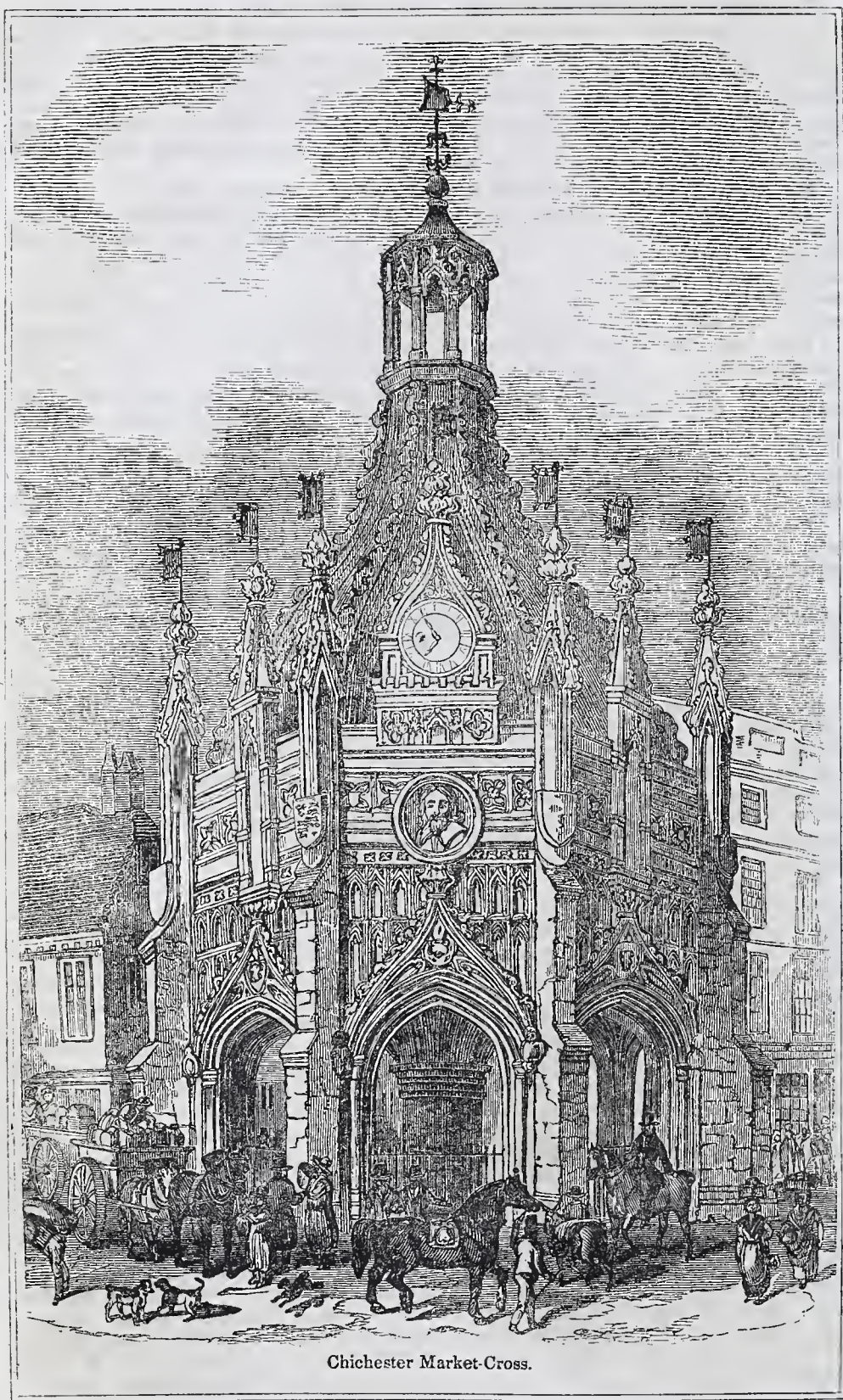
The cross is still popularly called the "Butter cross," the dealers in butter having been in the habit of vending their particular commodity here down to the year 1772, when a new market-house was erected.

Chichester Market-Cross is pronounced by Britton to be "the most enriched and beautiful example of this class of buildings in England." It was erected by Bishop Story, of whom the Rev. Alexander Hay, the historian of Chichester, gives the following account:—

"Edward Story, doctor of divinity, fellow of Pembroke hall, in Cambridge, was consecrated bishop of Carlisle, October 14, 1468; and when he had sat nine or ten years there, was translated hither in 1478. He built the cross in the market-place, which, for beauty and magnificence, equalled, if not surpassed, any in the kingdom; and that the city might not be at any charge with it, he left (we are told) an estate at Amberley, worth full 25*l.* per annum, to keep it in repair, which, a few years afterward, the mayor and corporation sold in order to purchase another of the same value nearer home. He founded also the grammar school in this city A. D. 1497, and died in January, 1502, in the 80th year of his age."

The Market-Cross stands in the centre of the city, at the intersection of the two principal streets, which run east and west and north and south. "Like those of Malmesbury, Glastonbury, Cheddar, &c.," says Mr. Britton, "it was intended to shelter persons who brought articles to the market. A large central column, from which spring numerous bold ribs, beneath a vaulted roof, and eight pier buttresses, support the superincumbent panelled wall, parapet, pinnacles, and flying buttresses. Shields, charged with the arms of the bishop already named [Story], impaling those of the reigning monarch, are attached to the buttresses; while the walls between the arches and the outer ogee mouldings are ornamented with sculptured mitres. These mouldings terminate with large and elaborate finials, which serve as brackets to pedestals in niches, which are surmounted by fine canopies. Three inscriptions on tablets fill as many niches, while large clock-dials are inserted above them. The clock was presented by 'Dame Elizabeth Farrington, as an hourly memento of her good-will,' in 1724. The open turret is comparatively modern, and executed in a very bad style."

Charing-Cross was of an octagonal form and built of stone, and in an upper stage contained eight figures. In 1643 it was pulled down and destroyed by the populace, in their zeal against superstitious edifices. Upon the ground of similar zeal, Henry VIII. suppressed the religious houses of the kingdom, and seized their estates and revenues to his own use: the hospital of St. Mary Rouncival was included in this fate. On its ancient site stands the palace of the duke of Northumberland. It was built in the reign of James I., by Henry Howard, earl of Northampton, and, during his life, was called Northampton house. In 1642 it came to Algernon, earl of Northumberland, by marriage, and since then has been called Northumberland house.



Chichester Market-Cross.

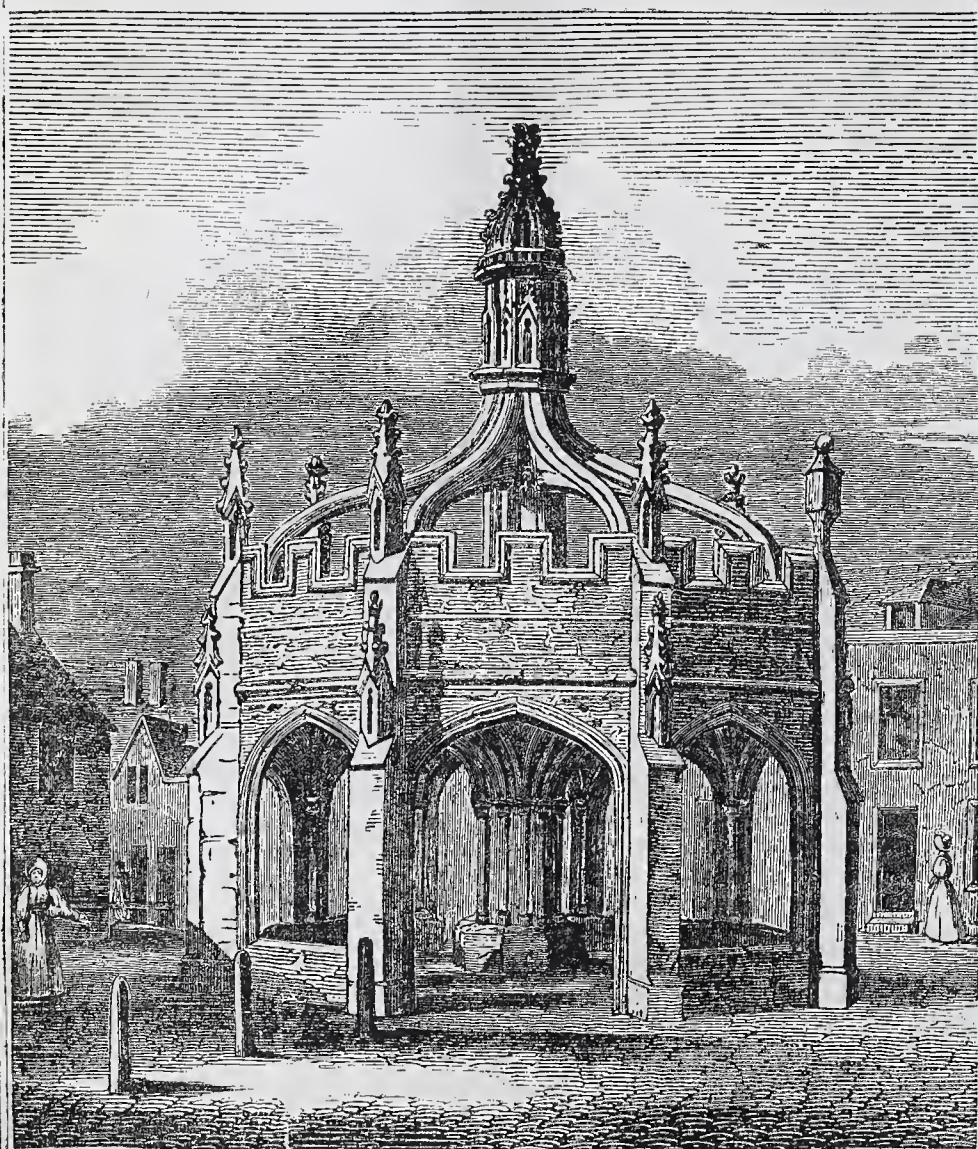


Charing-Cross.

The exact spot upon which Charing-Cross stood is occupied by an equestrian statue of Charles I., in bronze, executed in 1633, by Le Sœur, for the earl of Arundel. During the civil wars it fell into the hands of the parliament, by whom it was ordered to be sold and broken up. The purchaser, John River, a brazier, produced some pieces of broken brass, in token of his having complied with the conditions of sale; and he sold to the cavaliers the handles of knives and forks as made from the statue: River deceived both the parliament and the loyalists—for he had buried the statue unmutilated. At the restoration of Charles II. he dug it up, and sold it to the government; and Grinlin Gibbon executed a stone pedestal, seventeen feet high, upon which it was placed and still remains. It has been customary on the 29th of May, the anniversary of the restoration, to dress the statue with oaken boughs.

Malmesbury Market-Cross, represented in the engraving, stands nearly in the centre of the town. Of this the late Mr. Cobbett says, in his "Rural Rides:"—"There is a market cross in this town, the sight of which is worth a journey of hundreds of miles to see." Without going so far, however, it may be admitted to be an interesting architectural relic. It is an octangular stone building, with flying buttresses, and a richly-ornamented turret, which is also octangular, with a small niche on each side, filled with figures in basso-relievo, one of which represents the crucifixion. Leland says: "There is a right, fair, and costly piece of workmanship in the market-place, made all of stone, and curiously vaulted for poor market-folks to stand dry when rain cometh. There be eight great pillars, and eight open arches, and the work is eight square. One great pillar in the middle beareth up the vault. The men of the town made this piece of work '*in hominum memoria*,' that is, within the memory of man, or in the recollection of the existing generation." Leland wrote his "Itinerary" in the reign of Henry VIII. "The cross was substantially repaired," says Mr. Britton, "by the late earl of Suffolk and Lady Northwick, about twenty years ago," that is, prior to 1825.

The town of Malmesbury was one of the earliest of the incorporated boroughs of England, and was also early distinguished as a place of trade. It has produced several celebrated literary characters, among whom may be mentioned William of Malmesbury, so called either because he was born in the town (which is uncertain), or (which is the most probable supposition) from his connexion with the abbey, of which he was for many years the precentor and librarian. This monkish historian



The Market Cross at Malmesbury.

is deservedly honored by our later historical writers, who draw largely from his works. The celebrated metaphysician Hobbes was a native of Malmesbury.

In the "Boundary Reports" (1833) it is stated, "Malmesbury is not a place of any trade, and not a considerable thoroughfare. There are no new buildings in the suburbs, nor any indications of increasing prosperity. A cloth factory was established about twenty years ago, but it is now abandoned, and has been converted into a corn-mill. It contains very few houses which appear to be occupied by persons in independent circumstances, and has altogether the air of a place on the decline; it must now be considered as entirely an agricultural town." But in the municipal corporation report it is stated, that "a clothing establishment, recently revived, has given some stimulus to the demand for labor."

The late Mr. Cobbett was delighted with Malmesbury, because its ancient remains and present state supplied him with food for the absurd idea which he used so vigorously to advocate, viz., that England was formerly much more populous than it is now. "This town," he says, "though it has nothing particularly engaging in itself, stands upon one of the prettiest spots that can be imagined. Besides the river Avon, which I went down in the southeast part of the country, here is another river Avon, which runs down to Bath, and two branches or sources of which meet here. There is a pretty ridge of ground, the base of which is a mile, or a mile and a half, wide. On each side of this ridge a branch of the river runs down, through a flat of very fine meadows. The town and the beautiful remains of the famous old abbey stand on the rounded spot which terminates this ridge; and just below, nearly close to the town, the two branches of the river meet, and then they begin to be called the Avon. The land round about is excellent, and of a great variety of forms. The trees are lofty and fine, so that, what with the water, the meadows, the fine cattle and sheep, and, as I hear, the absence of hard-pinching poverty, this is a very pleasant place."

In the municipal corporations report, it is stated that "a court of record, with jurisdiction over all causes of action not exceeding forty pounds, had fallen into disuse before the date of the governing charter," that is, before the eighth year of the reign of William III., or before the commencement of the eighteenth century. "There is," it is added, "no other court, and, consequently, no occasion for juries, except on coroner's inquests. There is no police in the town, except the parish constables, and no jail."

CHAPTER XIV.

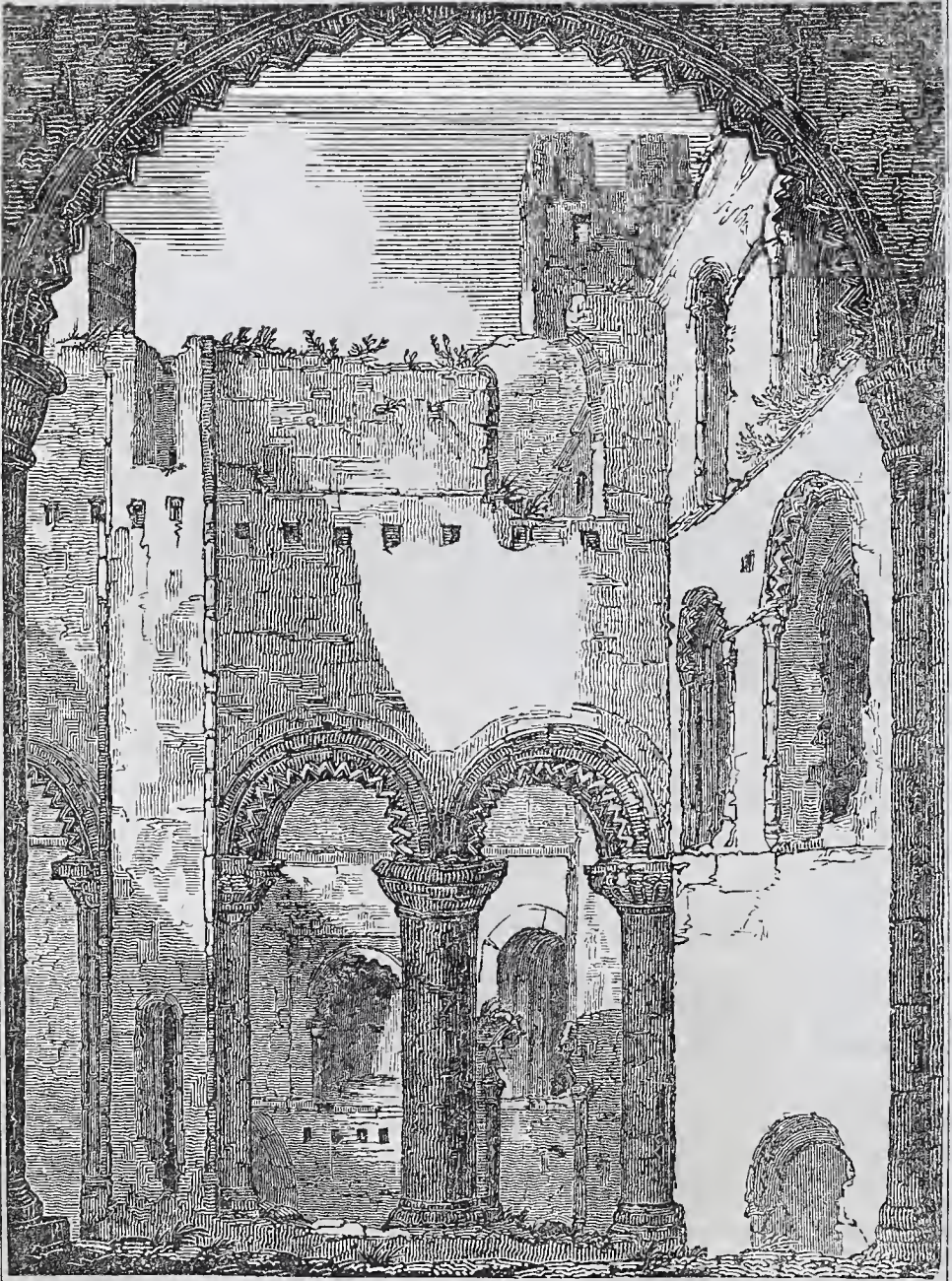
REGAL AND BARONIAL ANTIQUITIES.

PERHAPS the most striking features in the various landscapes which attract the eye of the traveller, at almost every mile of the tour through England, are the ruins of the castles of kings and barons. They are memorials of the feudal times, which, fortunately for the cause of peace, have passed, we hope for ever.

We shall proceed to notice some of the most prominent of these. We will premise that these ruins vary in extent and magnificence; some, too, are in much better preservation than others.

Close by the side of the Medway, and immediately above the bridge, stands Rochester castle; still, though now a bleak and roofless ruin, retaining many unobliterated features of its ancient vastness and magnificence. Its site is considerably elevated above the general level of the city; and, dilapidated as its walls are, they still tower far above all the other buildings in their neighborhood, the pinnacles of the cathedral only excepted. The principal part of the castle may indeed, it is said, be seen from a distance of twenty miles.

The fancy of the old chroniclers and legendary writers, which has adorned so many of the English cities and buildings with a fabulous antiquity, has not forgotten the castle of Rochester. In reference to the stories which have been invented with the view of giving it as illustrious an origin as possible, we may adopt the sensible



Interior of the Remains of the Upper Story of Rochester Castle.

language of the antiquary William Lambarde, who says: "Some men (desirous belike to advance the estimation of this city) have left us a far-fetched antiquity concerning one piece of the same, affirming that Julius Cæsar caused the castle at Rochester (as also that other at Canterbury, and the tower at London) to be builded of common charge; but I, having not hitherto read any such thing, either in Cæsar's own Commentaries, or in any other credible history, dare not avow any other beginning of this city or castle than that which I find in Beda."

Bede's account is, that Rochester took its name from one Rof or Rhof, who was once lord of it; but there is, in all probability, no foundation for this etymology. As Rochester, however, was a military station in the latter times of the Roman empire in Britain, there is reason to believe that a fort occupied the site of the present castle, the position of which is exactly such as would have recommended it for such an erection. Many Roman coins have been found within the circuit of the castle, but none in any other part of the city; from which we may conclude that this was the only part of the city which existed in the time of the Romans. This supposition is still further confirmed by the language of the documents of the Saxon period, which speak of the place as still merely a castle. Indeed, the name Rochester is an evidence that the station was originally merely a chester, castrum, or camp, and that the town has gradually grown up around the military fort.



Gateway of Rochester Castle.

The oldest portion of the present ruin is in the early Norman style of architecture. The building was probably the work of the Conqueror—one of the many strongholds which he erected in all parts of the country, to maintain his foreign dominion. Here it appears that his illegitimate brother, the famous Odo, bishop of Bayeux and earl of Kent, resided, and kept his court as a sort of petty sovereign of the county.

After the death of the Conqueror, Odo, who espoused the cause of his eldest son Robert, and being joined by the nobility, for some time, in this castle, resisted the arms of Rufus. The rebels were, however, at length reduced. In the latter part of this, or the commencement of the following reign, the vast and lofty tower which now forms the principal part of the ruin, is said to have been built by the famous Bishop Gundulph. But if the bishop's whole expenditure, as is asserted, was only "three score pounds," comparatively cheap as labor and materials then were, he could not with that sum have advanced such a building very far. It is not improbable, therefore, that the tower was completed, and indeed principally constructed, at the expense of the archbishop of Canterbury, to whom the castle was granted by Henry I., and by whom it is known that extensive repairs and improvements were executed upon the fabric. "By means of which cost done upon it at that time," says Lambarde, "the castle of Rochester was much in the eye of such as were the authors of troubles following within the realm, so that from time to time it had a part in almost every tragedy."

In the reign of John, Rochester castle was taken possession of, first in 1215, by the insurgent barons, who were, however, after some time, obliged to surrender to the king's forces, and in the following year, by the dauphin of France, whom they had called over to their assistance. In the time of the next king, Henry III., its strength was again attempted to be turned against the crown, having, in 1264, immediately after the battle of Lewes, been attacked by the victorious Montfort, earl of Leicester. This celebrated person, Lambarde tells us, "girded the city of Rochester about with a mighty siege, and setting on fire the wooden bridge, and a tower of timber that stood thereon, won the first gate or ward of the castle by assault, and spoiled the church and abbey; but being manfully resisted seven days together by Earl Warren that was within, and hearing suddenly of the king's coming thitherward, he prepared to meet him in person, and left others to continue the siege, all which were soon after put to flight by the king's army."

The last repair of the building that is recorded to have taken place was in 1461, in the reign of Edward IV. Since then it appears to have been almost entirely neglected, and has been allowed gradually to fall into the ruinous state in which it now appears, though not without the waste of time having been assisted by active dilapidation. The ruin, which is now the property of the earl of Jersey, occupies a quadrangular space of about three hundred feet in each dimension. The north, south, and east sides had been formerly defended by a deep ditch, but that is now filled up. The river flows on the west side. The walls are, for the most part, built of rough stones from Caen, bound together by a cement which has now become extremely hard. Their thickness varies from eleven to thirteen feet. Fragments of several towers still remain at the angles, and in other parts of the building; but of these there is no other to be compared in magnitude to that called Gundulph's tower, which has been already mentioned, and which stands at the southeast angle of the castle. This is a quadrangular erection, each side of which, at the base, is not less than seventy feet long, while the height of the whole is a hundred and twelve feet. The walls incline slightly inward as they rise from the ground. Attached to the east angle is a smaller tower, between seventy and eighty feet in height, which is to be considered as part of the same erection. These two towers appear to have contained the principal apartments of the castle, and they have evidently been laid out so as to afford accommodations of princely magnificence.

A partition wall of five feet in thickness runs up the middle of the larger tower, from the ground to the roof; and the height has been divided into four successive stories by three floors, the marks of which on the walls are still perfectly discernible, although the joists and boards of which they consisted have long been removed. They were used, it is said, in building a brew-house on the neighboring common. Each of the six rooms measures, in the interior, forty-six feet in length by twenty-one in breadth. The height of those on the ground floor is thirteen, that of those in the second story twenty, that of those in the third story thirty-two, and that of those in the fourth story sixteen feet. Winding stairs of about five feet and a half in width, now much decayed, occupy the east and west angles, and open into every apartment. There are also communications on each floor between the two parts of the tower, by arched door-ways formed in the partition wall. In the third story where the state apartments appear to have been, these arches, which are four in number, are richly ornamented, and are eighteen feet in height, each of the three columns which divide

them being four feet in diameter. Through the central partition, also, a well, two feet nine inches in diameter, ascends to the summit of the building, communicating with each floor as it passes up. The rooms have all fireplaces; but there are no chimneys, the vent for the smoke being merely a hole formed in the outer wall, immediately above the fireplace. Other larger openings serve for the admission of light and air. The roof of the highest rooms is ninety-three feet in height from the ground, and beyond that there is an uncovered battlement rising seven feet higher. Finally, the towers at the four corners ascend to the height of twelve feet above the termination of the battlement.

The castle of Norwich stands near the heart of the city, and at some distance west from the cathedral. It occupies the termination of a long acclivity which enters the city from the southeast. The site of the castle is both the centre and the most elevated spot of the city; and, placed on that commanding eminence, the old fortress is seen from a great distance raising its massive front far above all the surrounding buildings. It stands nearly, but not quite, with its walls facing the cardinal points, the east and west ends being only a very little inclined toward the south and north respectively.

What is now, and has for many ages been, called the castle, however, is merely the keep, or main tower of the entire structure. In its original state, the fortress no doubt consisted of several courts, all surrounded with buildings. The space over which it once extended can still be nearly ascertained, and appears to have been about twenty-three acres. There were three circular fortifications, each consisting of a wall with a deep fosse or ditch at its base. The spaces thus enclosed formed an outer, a middle, and an inner court, or ballium, as such divisions were properly called when of this peculiar form. Near the centre of the inner ballium, which occupied the summit of the hill, was placed the keep, as the principal part of the stronghold, and the refuge of its occupants, should they be driven from every other post.

A great part of the space which was once included within the castle is now covered with streets and lanes, and seems to belong to the town. It is said, however, that even the line of the outer ditch may still be partially traced by a close examination of the ground; or at least it might have been so not many years ago. The only entrance into the castle was by a bridge thrown over this ditch, at the north end of what is now called Golden-ball lane, that is, at the southeast point of the circle. There was also a bridge over the second ditch, opposite to that over the first; but this, too, has been completely swept away. That over the last of the three ditches, however, still remains, and is unquestionably one of the most ancient structures of this description in the kingdom. It consists of the half of a circle of the diameter of forty-three feet three inches, and is partly built of bricks, a circumstance which has induced some antiquaries to regard it as of Roman erection. The bricks, however, are not such as were used by the Romans, but of the kind found in Saxon structures. At the inner termination of this bridge there were to be seen, some years ago, the remains of two round towers, each of about fourteen feet in diameter, by which it had been anciently guarded.

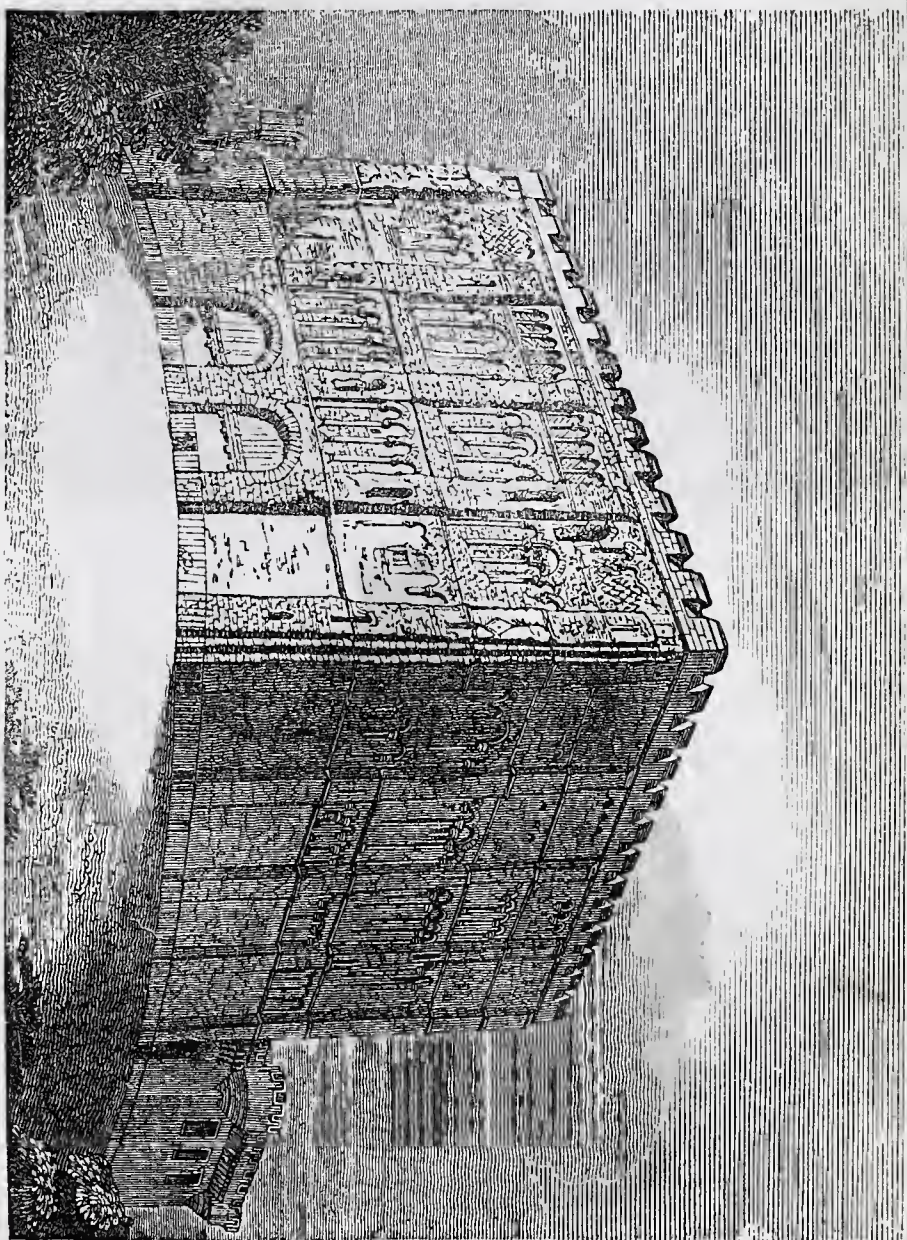
The east end of the castle, the greater part of which is now in a manner hidden from view, was the principal front of the building. Here was an oblong projection, measuring fourteen feet from the wall by about twenty-seven in the opposite direction, which served as a sort of porch or outer tower leading to the greater stronghold. It adjoined the northern corner. The architecture of this exterior erection was more ornamental than that of the body of the castle, and seemed to indicate that it had been raised in a more recent age; on which account Mr. Wilkins has called it Bigot's tower, after the nobleman in whose hands the place was after the Norman conquest. It does not appear, however, that the tower had been traditionally known by this appellation. It was adorned by three arches from the east, and one at its northern extremity.

The main building is a parallelogram, one hundred and ten feet in length from east to west, by about ninety-three feet in breadth. With the exception of the east end, already noticed, the different sides present nearly the same general aspect—a basement story built of rough flint stones, and above that three upper stories, constructed of regularly-laid and ornamented freestone. Running along each is a series of semicircular arches, supported by small columns, and between them slight but-

tresses ascend from the base of the wall to the top. In the upper story, the face of the wall behind the arches is formed into a sort of network by the stones being ranged in diagonal rows, and being besides ornamented with deep grooves, so as to produce a sort of cross-hatching. The entire height is nearly seventy feet, of which twenty-four feet is occupied by the basement story; and the whole terminates in a battlemented ridge. The walls are in some places thirteen feet thick.

The origin of the building is involved in great uncertainty, and the question has much divided the antiquaries. "Vulgar tradition," says Thornhaugh Gurdon, in a short anonymous essay, published at Norwich, in 1728, "first makes it a British castle of great strength, before Julius Cæsar peeped into the nation; and another part of the same tradition gives it a high founder, no less man than Julius Cæsar, and that the great crack in the east wall of it was made at the same time the veil of the temple was rent; and have produced some other such-like brats of prolific imagination, not worthy of confutation." Gurdon has traced the known history of the castle with considerable learning, and his sketch has been the guide of most of those who have since given an account of it. The common opinion is, that the original Roman station in this part of the island, the Venta Icenorum, as they called it, was at Castor, about three miles south from Norwich; although Mr. Blomefield, the learned historian of the county, conceives it to have been not here, but at Elmham. It can scarcely be doubted, however, that Castor was a Roman or British settlement, whether that called, in the "Itineraries," Venta Icenorum, or not. It was, in all probability, in reference to Castor that Norwich was so named by the Saxons. The word signifies merely the northern town. When the Saxon leader Uffa, in 576, founded the kingdom of East Anglia, the present county of Norfolk formed a part of it; and it is ascertained that, before the middle of the following century, Anna, one of Uffa's successors, had a castle or royal residence here. What sort of erection this may have been, however, it is impossible to say. Ancient authorities state, that when Alfred the Great, in the ninth century, repaired and restored the different castles which had suffered from the devastations of the Danes, he, for the first time, built of stone many of them which had before been constructed only of earth; and that of Norwich seems to be spoken of as one of the number. Alfred's castle, however, was, in the beginning of the eleventh century, entirely destroyed by the Danish invader, Sweyn. There is no mention in any record of the erection of another fortress before the Norman conquest: but from the character of the architecture of the present building, which is not Norman, but Saxon, it is supposed to have been the work of Sweyn's son, Canute the Great, who, during his peaceful reign, is known to have planted many such strongholds throughout the country, the better to control his subjugated kingdom. After the conquest, in 1077, Roger Bigot is recorded to have been appointed constable of Norwich castle. It remained in that family until it was surrendered to the crown, in 1225, in the reign of Edward III. About half a century afterward, however, it was again granted to the Bigots, now become earls of Norfolk, and marshals of England. The other historic notices which have been preserved of it merely record the names of the successive noblemen who enjoyed the honor of being its constables. It became eventually the property of the crown, in whose possession it continued till the year 1806, when it was, by act of parliament, made over, in trust, to the magistrates of Norfolk, to be by them disposed of for purposes connected with the public business of the county.

The mode in which Norwich castle appears to have been fortified is certainly somewhat peculiar, and ought, perhaps, to be considered as alone furnishing a strong proof that it is not a Norman work. Some antiquaries have even gone so far for the model of the three circular walls as to the temple of Jerusalem, and certain oriental fortresses of equal, or perhaps greater antiquity, which are stated by Josephus to have been constructed in this fashion. It may be observed, however, that, admitting the original foundation of the castle, and the form of the outworks, to belong to times antecedent to the Norman invasion, the keep may still have been erected since that event. In so far as its interior construction can now be ascertained, it appears to have closely resembled the castles of Canterbury and Rochester, both of which were Norman structures. It seems to have been, for instance, divided, as they were, into two parts by a strong partition, running across it from east to west, and probably containing a well which was open from the foundation to the summit of the building. Norwich castle, we may mention in conclusion, was in former times popularly known

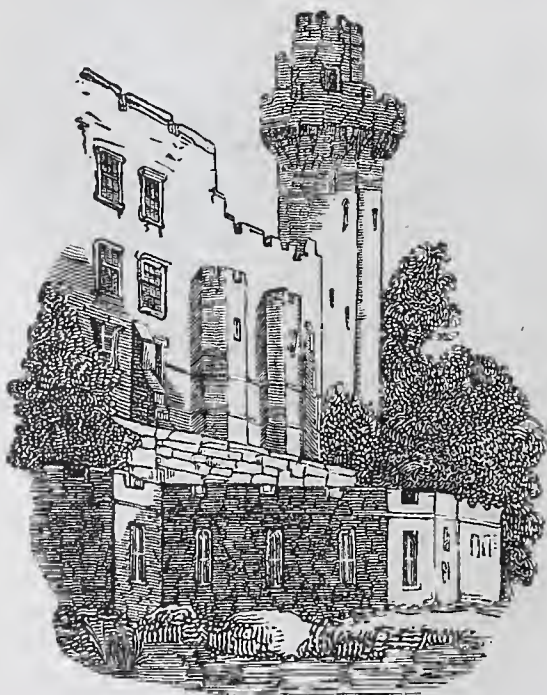


Southwest View of Norwich Castle.

by the name of *Blanche-Flower*, in allusion perhaps to the color of the stone, which, when new, would be white, but more probably, we think, to the general beauty of its appearance. This appellation seems to have been forgotten at the beginning of the last century.

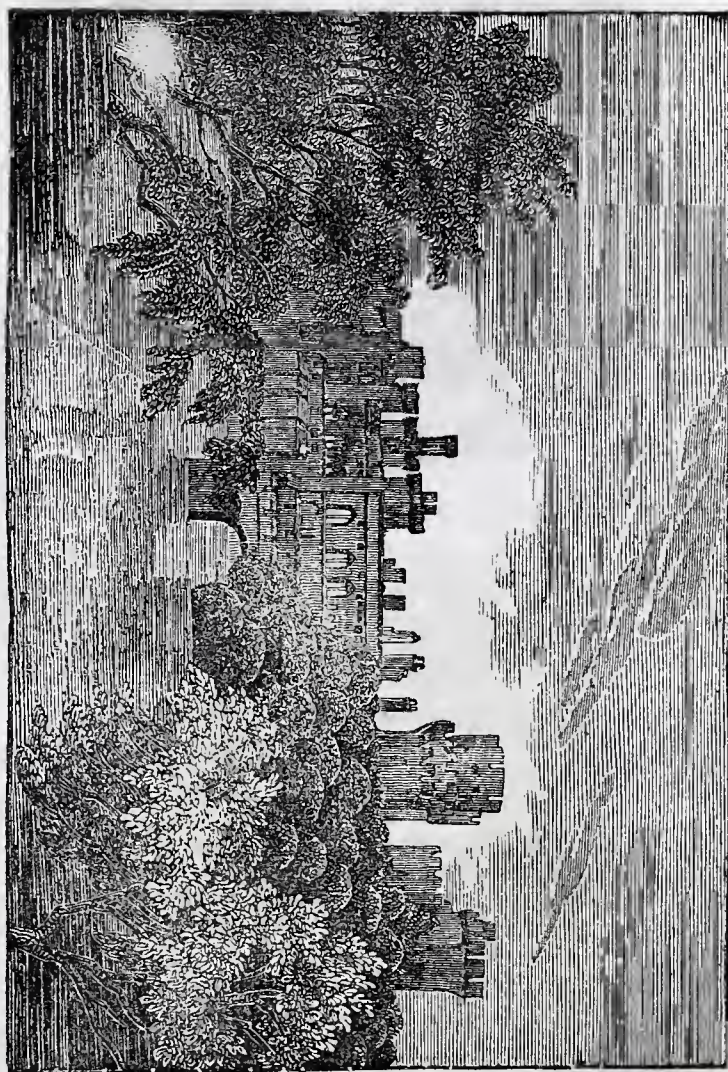
Warwick castle is one of the most interesting monuments of feudal grandeur in the kingdom. The view which we have given (page 175) is from the river Avon, from whose banks the principal part of the edifice abruptly rises, being built upon the solid rock of freestone which bounds the river. Viewed by itself, this portion of the building is not the most picturesque; but taken in connexion with the ancient towers of the castle, with the ecclesiastical edifices of *Warwicktoun* in the background, and with the Avon and its beautiful bridge in front, it would be difficult to find a scene more imposing—certainly impossible to find one so rich in historical associations, which should be also so uninjured by time.

Passing through a road cut through the solid rock, which now presents a plantation of shrubs judiciously arranged so as to shut out the view of the castle till it is suddenly presented to the eye, the visiter finds himself in a spacious area, where he is at once surrounded by ancient fortifications, and Gothic buildings of a later date, now devoted to the peaceful occupation of the descendants of the old chieftains who here once held a stern and bloody sway over their trembling dependants. The keep, erected, it is said, in the days of our Anglo-Saxon ancestors, is now only a picturesque ruin. But two towers of high antiquity are still entire, and these are associated with the days of baronial splendor, when many a proud man, the lord of such a castle as this, held the lives and fortunes of trembling vassals in dependence upon his uncontrolled will. Miserable was the condition both of “the oppressor and the oppressed” in those evil times. One of these towers is called *Cæsar’s*—a common appellation of some commanding part of the fortress in many castles of remote antiquity.

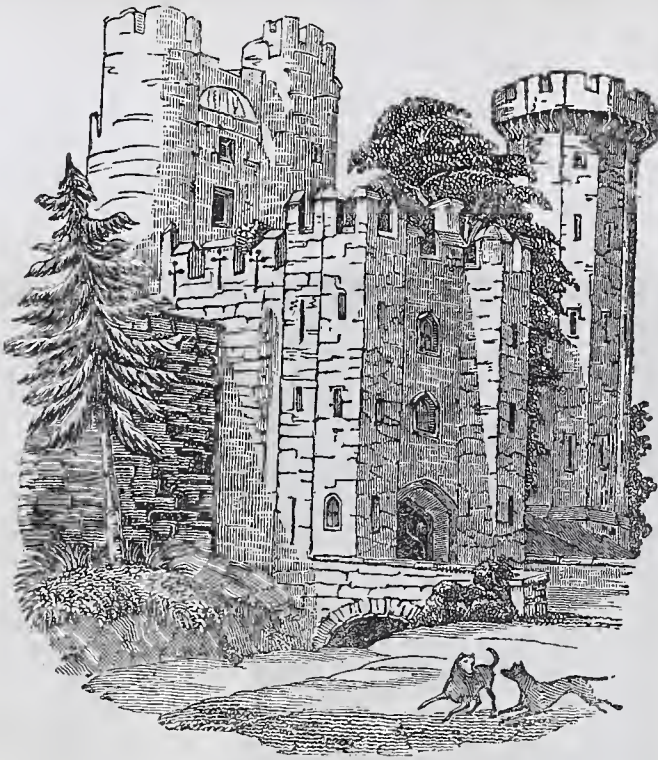


Cæsar's Tower, and part of Warwick Castle, from the Island.

Another, and the more important of these towers, is called *Guy's*. This building is perhaps the most commanding feature of Warwick castle. It is a hundred and forty-eight feet in height. From whatever point it is viewed, its proportions are truly majestic. Its real grandeur is neither advanced nor impaired by the traditions with which it is connected. Sir Guy of Warwick is one of the heroes of the wild romances



Warwick Castle, from the Avon.



Guy's Tower, with the Entrance to Warwick Castle from the Lower Court.

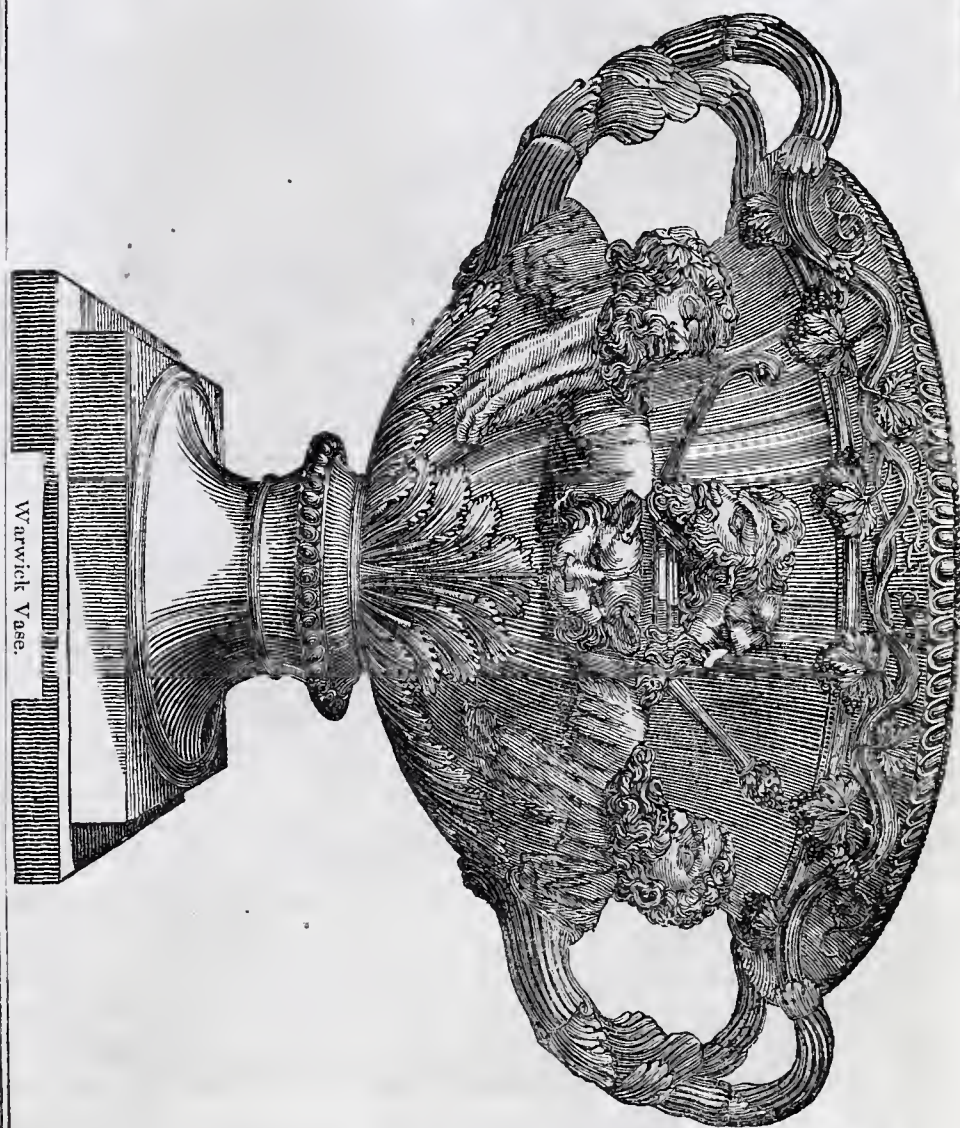
of the days of chivalry. He is said, as is said of most of these worthies, to have killed a giant and a dragon; but his chief exploit is thus recorded in an old ballad:—

“On Dunmore heath I also slew
A monstrous wild and cruel beast,
Called the Dun-cow of Dunmore heath,
Which many people had opprest.”

In these days no great importance will be attached to this passage in the good knight's prowess; and, in truth, many of the bragging feats of those days, when people rode about on great horses, clad in coats-of-mail, were not a whit more valuable to mankind, or evinced more real courage, than this vaunted destruction of the “Dun-cow.”

The staterooms, which are exhibited at Warwick castle, contain many objects deserving of attention. Some of the pictures are of the first order of excellence, particularly several portraits by Vandyke. In a greenhouse, delightfully situated in the grounds surrounding the castle, is one of the finest and most perfect remains of antiquity, a Grecian vase of white marble, dug up from the ruins of the emperor Adrian's palace at Tivoli, and conveyed to England by the late Sir William Hamilton (see engraving, “Warwick Vase”).

On the edge of the road that leads from Warwick to Coventry is a knoll, now almost covered with trees, which was the scene of one of the most remarkable events in our history, which forcibly illustrates the difference between the Warwick castle of five centuries ago, and the Warwick castle of the present day. It was on this mount that Piers Gaveston, the favorite of a weak monarch (Edward II.), was beheaded. The original name of this place was Blacklow-hill. It is now called either by that name, or by that of Gaveston-hill. Piers Gaveston, the clever, but unprincipled favorite of the king, was the object of especial enmity to the great barons who were in opposition to the crown. After various conflicts with the monarch, they succeeded in banishing the favorite from the kingdom; but he having imprudently returned in 1312, the earl of Warwick forcibly seized upon his person, in defiance of an express convention, and bore him in triumph to Warwick castle, where the earls of Lancaster, Hereford, and Arundel, repaired to hold a consultation about their pris-



Warwick Vase.

oner. His fate was speedily decided. He was dragged to Blacklow-hill, about two miles from Warwick castle, where he was beheaded amid the scorn and reproach of his implacable and perfidious enemies. On the top of Blacklow-hill there is a rude stone, on which the name of Gaveston and the date of his execution are cut in ancient characters. As one now looks upon the beautiful prospect which this summit presents, it is satisfactory to contrast the peacefulness and the fertility that are spread around, with the wild appearance that the same spot must have exhibited at the period of lawless violence which we have described; and to reflect that such a tragedy can never again occur, as long as all men are under the equal justice of the laws.

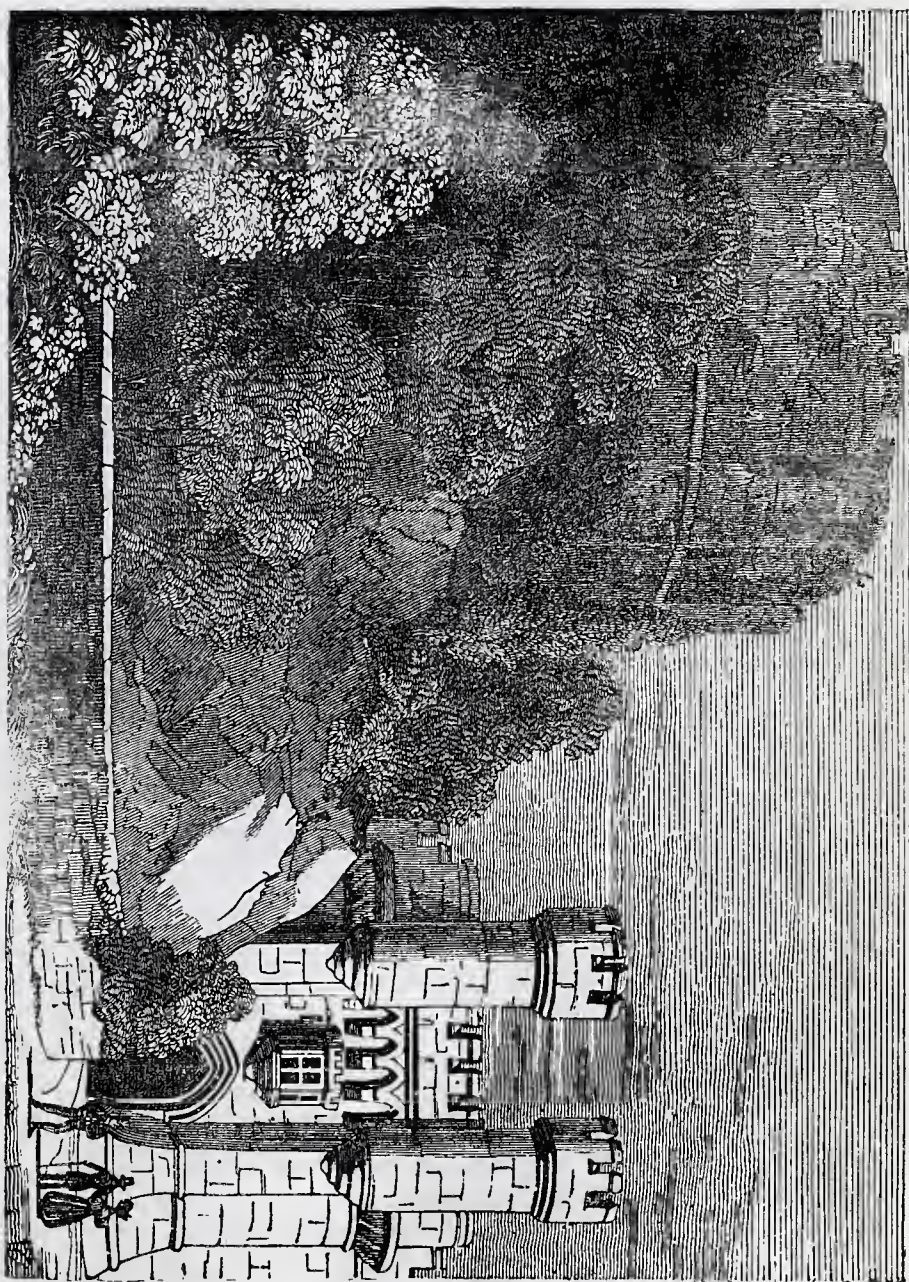
The castle of York, now the county jail, stands at the distance of about two hundred yards from the eastern bank of the Ouse, and close to the Foss, which being brought round it in a deep moat or ditch, renders it inaccessible, except from the city, on the north. Historical evidence sufficiently proves, that before the Norman conquest York had a castle, which Drake supposes to have been the Old Bailie, on the opposite side of the Ouse. The castle on the present sight, according to the opinion of the same author, was built by William the Conqueror, but probably on a Roman foundation. Having fallen to decay, it was repaired, or rebuilt, in the reign of Richard III. After it was no longer used as a fortress, it was converted into a county prison; but, having fallen into a ruinous state from age, it was taken down in the year 1701, and in its stead a structure was erected which, so lately as thirty years since, was considered to form one of the best regulated and most commodious prisons in the kingdom. However, it was presented by the grand jury at the Lent assizes, in 1821, for insufficiency; and this presentment was repeated at each succeeding assizes, until a resolution was at last passed, in the year 1824, that a competition of architects should be invited in the usual manner, in order to procure the best plan for effecting the proposed improvements. That of Mr. Robinson, of London, was preferred, and in 1826 the works were commenced under his direction and superintendence.

Prison-building is not at all times interesting in an architectural point of view; but the architect has, in this instance, adopted the castellated character. In enlarging the old building, he has formed his design in the style of the ancient bars or city-gates of York, which are much admired for their simplicity, and for the manner in which they preserve the architectural characteristics of the age in which they were built. The entrance-gatehouse, the internal elevation of which is exhibited in our engraving, is in some degree similar to the Monk Bar. It is flanked by circular towers of great strength, and extends seventy feet in front, by forty-six in depth. The prison is fireproof, the structure being entirely of stone; the walls are five feet thick below, and three feet above, and no timber is used in the floors, the stone extending from wall to wall. Each cell of the prison is covered with a single piece of stone five inches thick, and the cells are divided laterally by single stones nine inches thick. The doors are of hammered iron, and three iron guards are placed in each aperture in the thickness of the wall.

The boundary wall, surrounding the new prison, the old debtors' prison, and the courthouse, is thirty-five feet in height above the ground, and it has towers at intervals to strengthen it. This wall is 1,350 feet in length, and is in itself a specimen of very superior workmanship. Upon the whole, York castle may be considered the strongest prison in England, and it is certainly one of the most complete and efficient. The criminal side affords room for one hundred and sixty prisoners, divided into eight classes of twenty each. The airing courts are divided by walls twenty feet in height. The whole building is well supplied with water and well ventilated.

In all the alterations which have taken place, "Clifford's tower," which stands within the walls, and which we now proceed to notice, has been preserved with the most scrupulous care.

A short distance within the gateway is a high mound, thrown up with prodigious labor, and surrounded by a strong stone wall. It appears to be elevated at least ninety feet above the level of the Ouse, and thirty feet above the site of the castle or jail and the adjacent parts of the city. On the summit of this mount stands an ancient tower, called "Clifford's tower;" and, according to tradition, one of that family was its first governor, after it had been built by the Conqueror for the purpose of overawing the city and country. The castle itself was found by Leland in a ru-



Clifford's Tower, and Entrance to York Castle.

inous state in the time of Henry VIII. But on the commencement of the civil wars between Charles I. and the parliament, it was completely repaired and fortified by order of the earl of Cumberland, the governor of York. On the top of the tower was made a platform on which several pieces were mounted: a garrison was appointed for its defence, and Colonel Sir Francis Cole was its governor during the siege of the city. After the surrender of York in 1644, it was dismantled of its garrison, except this tower, of which Thomas Dickenson, the lord-mayor, a man strongly attached to the cause of the parliament, was constituted governor. It continued in the hands of his successors, as governors, till 1683, when Sir John Reresby was appointed to that office by Charles II. In the following year, 1684, on the festival of St. George, about ten o'clock in the evening, the magazine took fire and blew up, and the tower was reduced to a shell, as it remains at this day. Whether this happened accidentally or by design was never ascertained; but the demolition of the "minced pie" was, at that time, a common toast in the city; and it was observed that the officers and soldiers of the garrison had previously removed their effects, and that not a single man perished by the explosion.

The celebrated structure of Newark castle is understood to have been built, in the reign of King Stephen, by Alexander, bishop of Lincoln, who also erected the castles of Banbury, in Oxfordshire, and Sleaford, in Lincolnshire. Henry of Huntingdon says, that this castle, emphatically called the *New-work*, gave name to the town. It seems, at that time, to have been considered somewhat improper for an ecclesiastic to busy himself in the erection of fortresses; and we are informed that Alexander founded two monasteries in the way of expiation. If the old writers are to be literally understood, the bishop was certainly the founder of the castle; but Dr. Stukely and Mr. Dickinson are disposed to contend that they are not to be understood as saying more than that Alexander enlarged, ornamented, and fortified, a castle which previously existed. One of the principal reasons for this conclusion is, that, even in its ruins, this castle exhibits at least two different styles of architecture—one much anterior to the other—which was not likely to have been the case had the bishop built the structure from the foundation.

Be this as it may, the king did not at all approve of the taste which Alexander and other bishops displayed for building and strengthening castles; and when ultimately roused to act with vigor against the turbulent barons and factious ecclesiastics, he commenced with the latter, and either cajoled or forced them into submission, until he obtained possession, successively, of all their strongholds. Alexander was found to be very intractable, and was therefore, with his uncle, seized by the king, and detained in prison till all the fortresses of both were surrendered. The governor of Newark castle refused to surrender it, unless ordered to do so by the bishop in person; but he did not persist in this determination when he received notice from the prelate, that the king had made a vow that he (the bishop) should have neither meat nor drink till that fortress was surrendered.

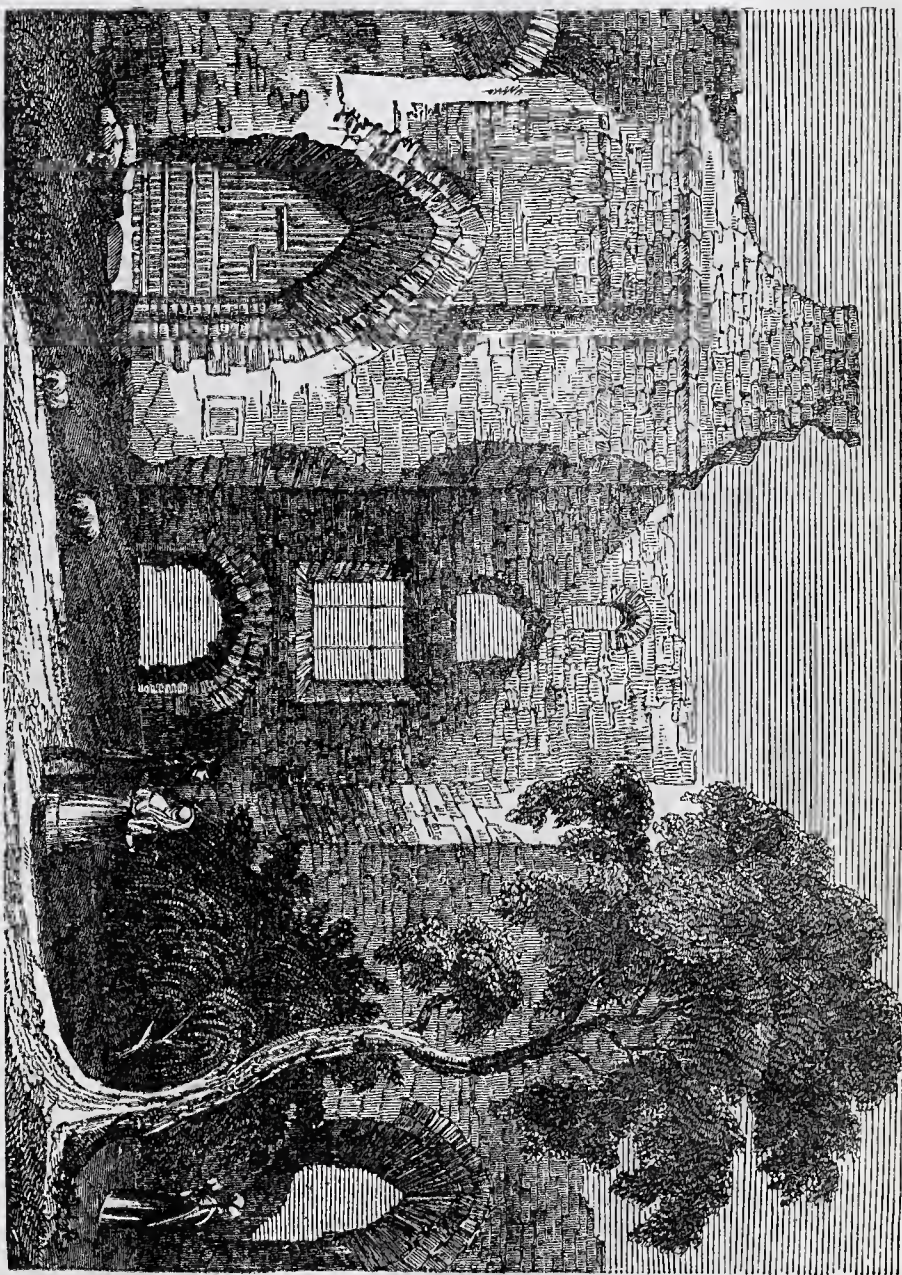
During the troubles in the latter end of King John's reign, the castle was in the hands of the royal party; and it was not only gallantly defended, but the garrison frequently sallied out and wasted the lands of such of the insurgent barons as had estates in that neighborhood. The dauphin of France, therefore, thought it necessary to send a considerable force, under the command of Gilbert de Gaunt, whom he had created earl of Lincoln, to take the castle. This was found to be no easy matter; and when Gilbert heard of the approach of the king at the head of a powerful army, he raised the siege and retired to London. Not long afterward the king actually arrived, but in no condition to fight the barons, had they been there; for on his march from Lynn, through Lincolnshire, a great part of his men, together with all his treasure, carriages, baggage, and regalia,

"Were in the washes all unwarily
Devoured by the unexpected flood."

When he reached the castle, he was no less indisposed in body than distressed in mind, and died there on the 19th of October, 1216. Stowe adds: "Immediately on the king's death, his servants, taking all that was about him, fled, not leaving so much of anything (worth the carriage) as would cover his dead carcase."

When the French prince made terms with John's successor, the barons who had assisted the former, being left in an unpleasant predicament, seized and fortified this castle, with the view of making terms for themselves with the king. The protector,

Interior of Newark Castle.



the earl of Pembroke, marched against them, and, after a siege of eight days, the fortress was surrendered to him, the besieged throwing themselves upon the king's mercy. Henry restored the castle to the see of Lincoln, which was then filled by Hugh de Wells, chancellor of England.

After this, nothing of historical interest occurs for several centuries in connexion with Newark castle. In 1530 Cardinal Wolsey lodged in the castle, with a large retinue, while on his way to Southwell, where he spent great part of that summer. King James I. lodged in the castle in 1602, on his way from Scotland to London. He was entertained by the corporation of the town, who, among other demonstrations of loyalty, presented him with a gilt cup. Here it was that he afforded to the English the first demonstration of those exalted notions of prerogative and kingly power which he had afterward such unfortunate success in inculcating into the mind of his ill-fated son Charles. During Charles's reign, the castle again became of historical importance. The garrison of the castle and the inhabitants of the town adhered firmly to the royal interest throughout the protracted struggle between the king and the parliament. It formed to the royal party a strong and most useful post, whence many successful excursions were made; and it became an occasional place of retreat for the king himself. It was twice besieged without success by the parliamentary forces under Sir John Meldrum, and when it surrendered, in May, 1646, it was by the king's special command; and the governor, Lord Bellasis, obtained very advantageous and honorable conditions for himself and the garrison. After the surrender of the king, most of the royal garrisons were ordered by the parliament to be dismantled, and this of Newark among the rest. Since that time it has been a ruin.

But though in ruins, it still presents an august appearance. The parts which remain entire are the southwest angle, the west wall, and a considerable portion of a square tower toward the northwest corner. The western wall, which is washed by the river, presents in one part of it three distinct stories, or tiers of apartments, especially toward the northwest angle. In the tower at the southwest angle, as well as in the whole west wall, from that to the centre tower inclusive, there is an appearance of greater antiquity than in any other part of the building now remaining; but, advancing from south to north, as soon as the eye arrives beyond the centre tower, a very manifest difference appears. Among the large Gothic windows in the principal remaining front, there is an excellent projecting window, which forms a perfect specimen of those called *bays* or *bowers* in ancient times. Underneath the great hall, which appears to have been one of the most recent parts of the edifice, there is a very curious arched vault or crypt, the roof of which is supported by a central range of pillars, and on the side of the vault toward the river are loopholes and embrasures.

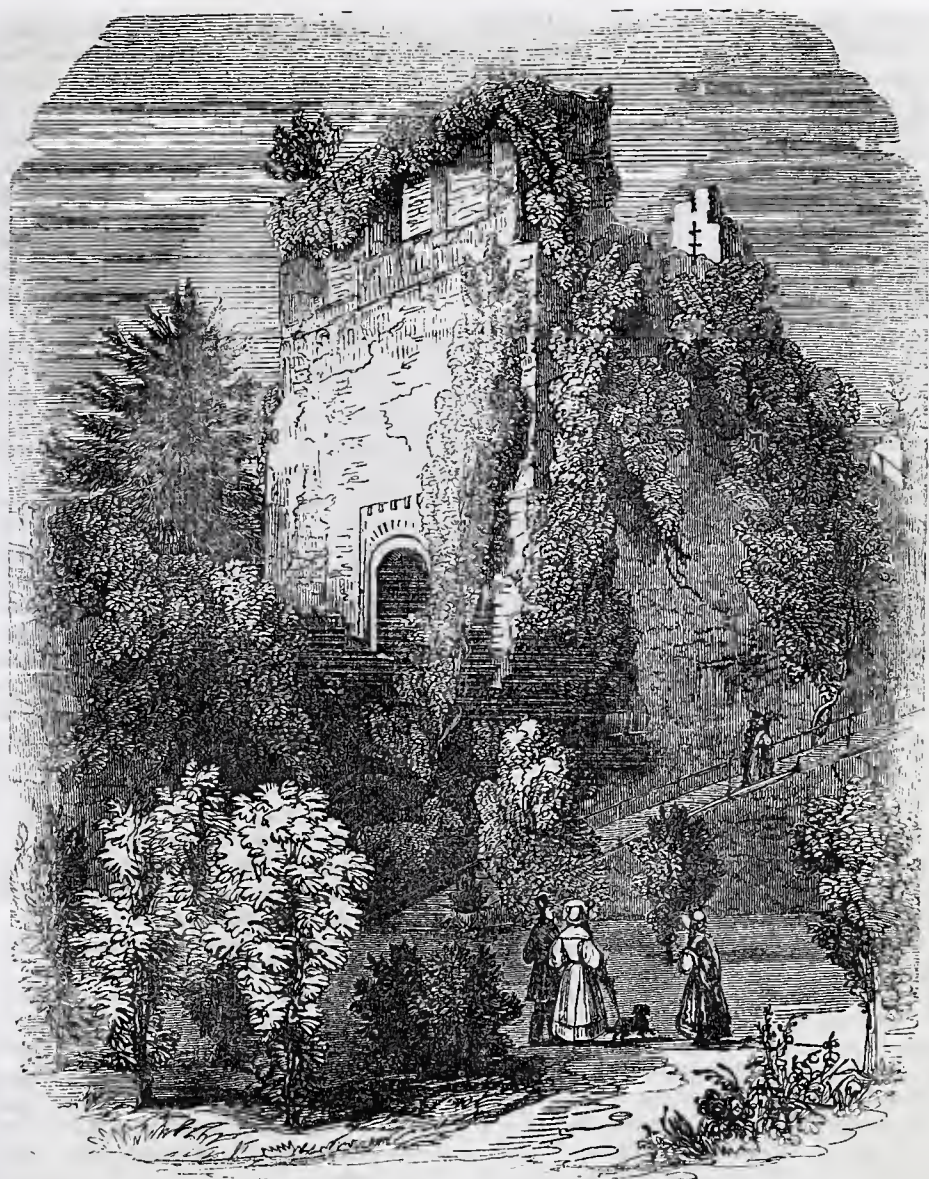
It is even now not difficult to discover the general outline of this once formidable fortress and princely habitation. It seems to have been a square of very great dimensions, and the number of its stories appears to have been at least five. Within the exterior walls nothing now remains, and the plot has long been used as a bowling-green.

The best view of this stupendous pile is from the northwest, the direction of the road from York. Many circumstances contribute to deprive it of those qualities which constitute a very picturesque ruin—the want of wood, the extreme irregularity of its architecture, and, above all, the contiguity of inferior erections for the purposes of habitation, or the conveniences of commerce. Viewed, however, at the distance of a mile, whether considered as the termination of a vista, or as the first object on the approach to a town, it presents a grand and interesting scene to the attention of the traveller; in the words of the poet—

“Frowning majestic o'er the silvery wave.”

The parish of Farnham, in Surrey, possesses several points of interest. Its name is perhaps the most generally known from the celebrity of the hops produced within its limits, while another class of people know it best as containing the principal official residence of the bishops of Winchester; and antiquarians feel some interest in it on account of the remains of the castle built by the ancient bishops. Our present engraving directs our attention to the castle and palace principally.

The manor of Farnham was given to the see of Winchester by Ethelbald, king of the West Saxons, and it has ever since remained the property of the bishops. The castle, which stands upon a hill on the north side of the town of Farnham, is said to have been built by Bishop Henry de Blois, the brother of King Stephen, in the year



Ruins of Farnham Castle.

1129. In that age bishops were nearly as much soldiers as ecclesiastics, and, in the spirit of the times, found or thought it necessary to erect fortresses after the manner of the temporal peers; often, however, deeming it also necessary to counterpoise an act so exclusively secular by founding a number of ecclesiastical or learned establishments equal to that of their military structures. There are few points of interest in the history of Farnham castle. It was one of the fortresses which, in the unhappy reign of King John, fell into the hands of Louis, the dauphin of France, who possessed himself of it in June, 1216; but it was, not long afterward, recovered for Henry III. In the course of the wars between that monarch and his barons, this castle was held by the latter, but, being taken by the king, was, in a great measure, destroyed by his directions. It was afterward rebuilt in a style of considerable magnificence, with a deep moat, strong walls, and towers. No notice of it, however, occurs in history until the civil war in the time of Charles I. Sir John Denham, who was nominated for sheriff of the county in 1642, took possession of it for the king, and was appointed its governor; but he soon after withdrew to join the king at Oxford, leaving the castle to the mercy of Waller, the parliament's general, who, after

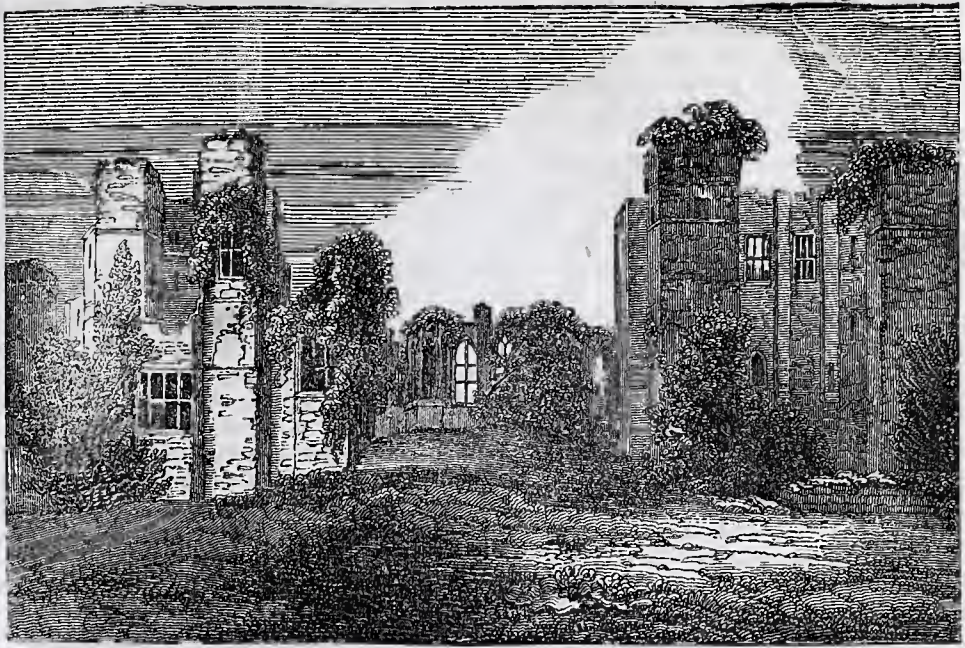
making the small garrison prisoners, blew up the fortress on the 29th of December, the same year. About a year afterward, Sir William Waller is mentioned as having drawn up his forces in Farnham park, and as marching thence to Alton (nine miles distant), where he put Lord Craford to flight, and returned to Farnham with seven hundred prisoners, whom he secured in the castle and parish church. The next notice of the castle occurs in July, 1648, when it was referred to the committee at Derby house, to take "such effectual course with Farnham castle as to put it in that condition of indefensibleness as it may be no occasion for endangering the peace of the county." A rate was made in the county to defray the expense of this service. From this and the preceding statement, it would seem that the injuries it sustained during the siege, and from the subsequent blowing up, had not completely reduced it to a ruined condition.

After the restoration, Bishop Morley expended 8,000*l.* in rebuilding and repairing the palace which his predecessors had erected within the precincts of the castle, and which had generally formed their principal residence. It is neither very handsome nor very convenient, and appears to have been patched up out of the building dismantled by parliament. It is quadrangular, embattled, and built of brick covered with stucco. The most impressive part is the great entrance tower at the west end, which retains the most of an ancient appearance, and confers some dignity on this front of the edifice. It is in that style of brick building which was brought into use in the reign of Edward IV. "Passing through this tower," says Mr. Carter, "and leaving on our right the great hall, and the communications to the state-rooms, chapels, &c., as having little in their present modern dress to excite the attention of an antiquary, we enter into the great court, where, casting our eye directly in the centre of our course, the keep of noble aspect mounts before us. All prepossession in favor of antiquity apart for an instant, there is no one visitant but must feel something more than a bare satisfaction in the view of this scene—an inbred conviction of the force of simple grandeur must awaken his highest admiration." The keep was a polygon of no great area, and flanked with towers now demolished. The ascent to it is very impressive. Within the doorway, which is of massive and plain well-wrought masonry, the visiter ascends through a long avenue, at the summit of which a second doorway leads into the area of the keep, where little more than the bare walls is found to recompense the labor of the ascent. This area, as well as the ditch that surrounds the keep, forms an excellent kitchen garden, although this scarcely seems the most appropriate use to which it could be applied.

On the east side of the great court, in the basement story, there is an avenue leading down to what was once the sally-port. Not much of the way is passable, the descent having been walled up at the distance of twenty or thirty feet; but dark as the passage is, there is still visible some excellent arch-work, with architraves of many mouldings. On the south side of the same great court appear two or three Saxon columns supporting pointed arches; the other side of these columns and arches appear within the building. Above them is a plain pointed arched vault, and some niches and recesses also appear in the walls. This remnant presents a good specimen of the original magnificence of the interior of the edifice. The alterations which have been made in the principal range of apartments by casing the walls, inserting windows, &c., appear to have been made about the time of Charles II., probably under the direction of Bishop Morley.

The deep ditch still remains, surrounding the greater part of the outworks of the castle and being now dry, is, on the north side, planted with forest-trees.

The town of Kenilworth, which contains the remains of the magnificent castle of Kenilworth, is situated in the county of Warwickshire, and is distant ninety-five miles northwest from London. The town probably owes its origin to the castle; and it does not appear that it ever attained to much importance. It now chiefly consists of one irregular street, about a mile in length, and its population, by the last census, amounted to 3,097 persons. It was an ancient demesne of the crown, and we are informed by Dugdale that, even in the Saxon times, it had within its precincts a castle which stood upon a place called Hom (Holme) hill. Its origin was popularly attributed to a Saxon king of Mercia, of the name of Kenulph, and his son Kenelm, and this is countenanced by the name which the place bears. The common accounts, in the time of Elizabeth, consider this castle to be the same with that to which our present account refers; and some give a still earlier origin to the structure. In the "*Princely Pleasures of Kenilworth*," the castle is described as ex-



Remains of Kenilworth Castle.

isting in the reign of King Arthur, and the Saxon king is only mentioned as repairing and improving the structure. The Lady of the Lake, in her address to Queen Elizabeth, says :—

“I am the lady of this pleasant lake,
 Who, since the time of great King Arthur's reign,
 That here, with royal court, abode did make,
 Have led a low'ring life in restless pain.
 Till now that this your third arrival here
 Doth cause me come abroad, and boldly thus appear.”

Whatever date be assigned to its origin, the castle was certainly demolished in the wars between King Edmund and Canute the Dane. The present structure was not commenced until about a century later.

After the conquest the demesne of Kenilworth remained with the crown until the time of Henry I., who gave it to a Norman named Geoffrey de Clinton. Dugdale credits the accounts which describe him “to have been of very mean parentage, and merely raised from the dust by the favor of the said King Henry, from whose hands he received large possessions and no small honor, being made both lord chamberlain and treasurer to the said king, and afterward justice of England: which great advancements do argue that he was a man of extraordinary parts. It seems he took much delight in this place, in respect of the spacious woods, and that large and pleasant lake (through which divers petty streams do pass) lying among them; for it was he that first built that great and strong castle here, which was the glory of all these parts, and for many respects, may be ranked in a third place, at the least, with the most stately castles in England.”

Even in this its first state, Kenilworth castle appears to have been of large space and great strength. This is shown by the extent, breadth, and depth of the outer moat, and by the ancient keep, called Cæsar's tower, which, from its form and the extraordinary thickness of its walls, appears to have been of the first foundation. It was called Cæsar's tower, as Laneham conjectures, “rather as I have good cause to think, for that it is square and high, formed after the manner of Cæsar's forts, than that ever he built it.” A principal and often very ancient tower in many castles is called “Cæsar's.”

Such a structure as Kenilworth castle became a desirable acquisition to the crown. It did not, therefore, long remain in the possession of the founder's descendants; but as the Clintons continued to possess the royal favor, and to live in prosperity and

wealth, after they no longer held the castle, it is probable that it was relinquished to the king for some valuable consideration.

When Cardinal Ottoboni (afterward pope under the name of Adrian V.) was sent to England by the pope, as legate, to endeavor to compose the differences between Henry and the barons, the king gave orders for Kenilworth castle to be given up to Walter Gray, archbishop of York, for the legate's use. It does not appear, however, that he occupied it, but appointed Richard de Gray to keep it for him.

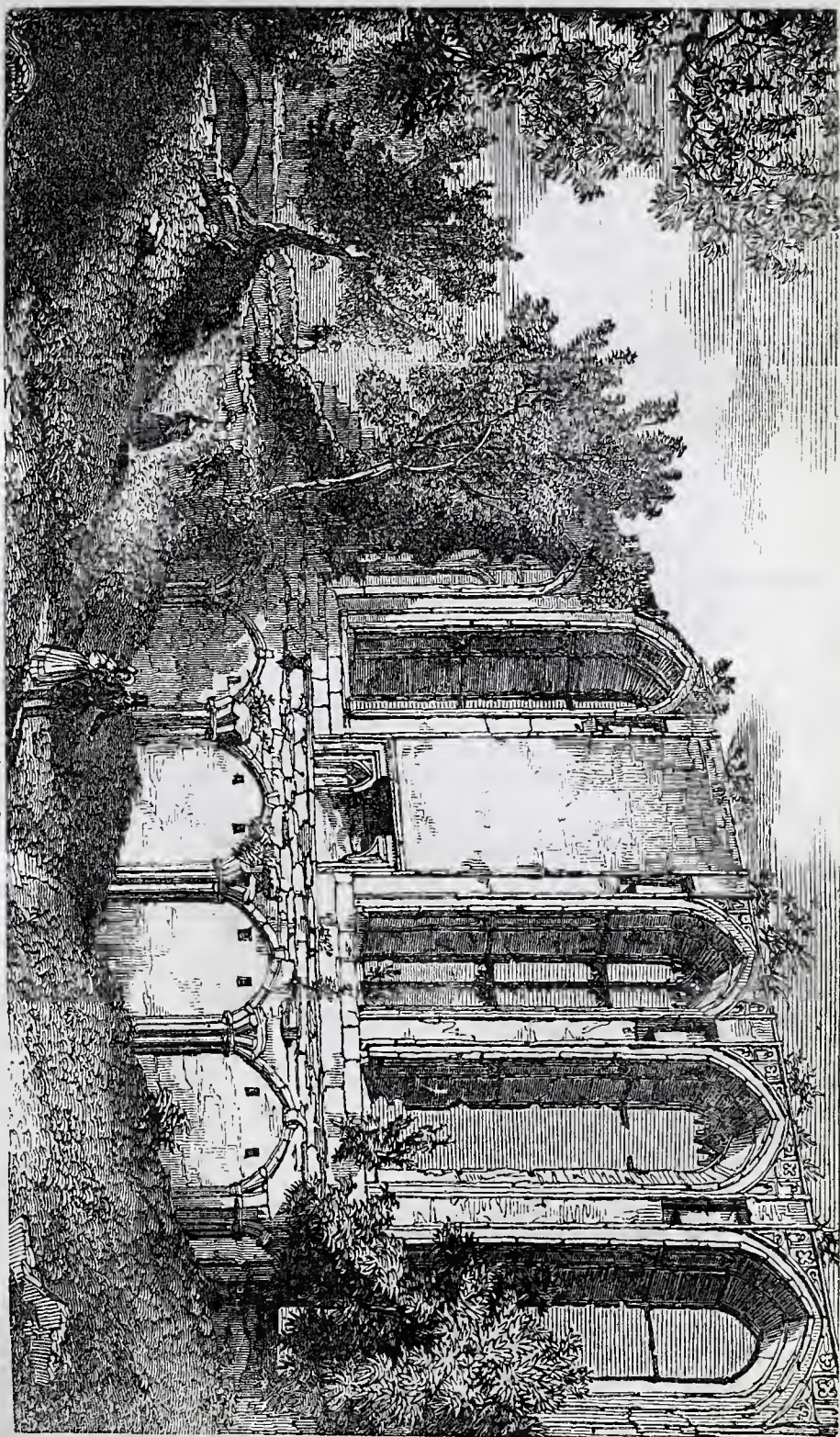
Not long after this, the king appointed the famous Simon de Montfort, earl of Leicester, to be governor of the castle, and afterward granted it for life to him and his wife Eleanor, who was the king's sister. This earl is stated to have "wonderfully fortified the castle, and stored it with many kinds of warlike engines, till that time never seen nor heard of in England." The earl afterward took a prominent part in the memorable revolt of the barons, the details of which, although of great importance in history, had little connexion with Kenilworth. When, however, the barons were defeated at Evesham, in August, 1265, the earl and his eldest son were among the slain, and it became the scene of very important operations. The earl's eldest surviving son, Simon de Montfort, continued in the castle, into which he received those that fled from the battle, and the friends and followers of persons killed. Their daily increasing numbers, and their exasperation of mind in consequence of "the death of their kindred and familiars," gave great strength and confidence to Simon, who "sent abroad his bailiffs and officers like a king—his soldiers spoiling, burning, plundering, and destroying, the houses, lands, and lordships of his adversaries, driving away their cattle, and imprisoning many, forcing them to what fines he pleased for their liberty."

This state of things continued until about midsummer, 1266, when the king, having become seriously alarmed for the consequences, determined to lay siege to the castle, and to that end marched with an army to Warwick, where he remained until he was joined by reinforcements from different parts of the country. Simon de Montfort, feeling that he should not be able to hold out long unless he could collect a force sufficient to raise the siege, left Kenilworth with the intention, it would seem, of going to France, though he does not appear to have gone further than the Isle of Ely. He encouraged Henry de Hastings, whom he left governor in his absence, to make a stout defence, and assured him of timely relief. Meantime, Prince Edward surrounded the castle; and while he determined, if need were, to starve the garrison into a surrender, he took care that there should be abundance in his own camp. Among the items of provision, we find that the sheriff of Norfolk was commanded to cause thirty-six tuns of wine to be brought thither from Lynn.

The king, wishing to prevent the effusion of blood, sent to offer very favorable terms to the besieged; "but," says Dugdale, "they did not only slight the king's offers, but maimed the messenger, and with much resolution defended themselves against all the assaults that were made, having engines that cast forth stones of great bigness, and making bold and frequent sallies, did very much mischief: neither could the sentence of Ottobon, the pope's legate, who was there in the camp, nor the king's power, any whit daunt them."

The king, being "much moved" at this reception of his conciliatory measure, determined to storm the castle. But about three weeks were necessary to enable the sheriff to collect the masons and other laborers who, with their hatchets, pickaxes, and tools, would be required in this service; and in the meantime the garrison began to suffer greatly, not only from want of provisions, but in consequence of a pestilential disease which raged among them, and of which many died. When the king heard of this he renewed his overtures, with assurances of kind treatment if they would surrender. In answer to this, they proposed that all acts of hostility should cease for the present, and that they should meantime be allowed to send to Simon de Montfort, to know whether he would relieve them by a fixed day or not; and if he did not, they engaged to deliver up the castle. The king consented. But before the messengers despatched to Simon could return, the flux and other grievous diseases increased so much among the inmates of the castle, that those who had hitherto escaped were unwilling to hazard the infection, and having little hope that Montfort would be able to assist them, surrendered the castle to the king, on condition that the governor and all the inmates "should have four days' time to carry out all their goods, and go freely away with horse, arms, and all accoutrements, throughout any part of the kingdom." Thus ended this memorable siege, which lasted full

Great Hall, Kenilworth.



six months, and the whole history of which indicates the great strength of the place, which after all was overcome by disease and famine rather than by the forces of the king.

Very soon after the king had gained possession of the castle he bestowed it upon his youngest son Edmund, earl of Lancaster, who was also on this occasion created earl of Leicester. At this time (7th Edward I.) Kenilworth castle was made the scene of a splendid and costly festival, the chief promoter of which was Roger Mortimer, earl of March, who was also the principal challenger in the tilt-yard. This personage appears to have been one of the most fashionable gallants of the time, and his own son Geoffrey named him "The King of Folly." The meeting was called the "Round Table," from the banquetings being held, according to a then ancient custom, at a round table, that the harmony of the festival might not be disturbed by questions about precedence. A hundred knights and an equal number of ladies were present. The knights, many of whom came from foreign parts to be present on the occasion, amused themselves with tilting and other exercises of chivalry, and the ladies with dancing. It is recorded in the accounts of this festival, apparently as an extraordinary circumstance, that the ladies were clad in silken mantles. The Lady of the Lake, in her address to Queen Elizabeth, which we have already quoted, thus alludes to the transactions which we have recorded:—

"The Earl Sir Mountford's force gave me no heart,
Sir Edmund Crouchback's state, the prince's son,
Could not cause me out of my lake to part;
Nor Roger Mortimer's ruff, who first begun
(As Arthur's heir) to keep the Table Round.
Could not comfort my heart, or cause me come on ground."

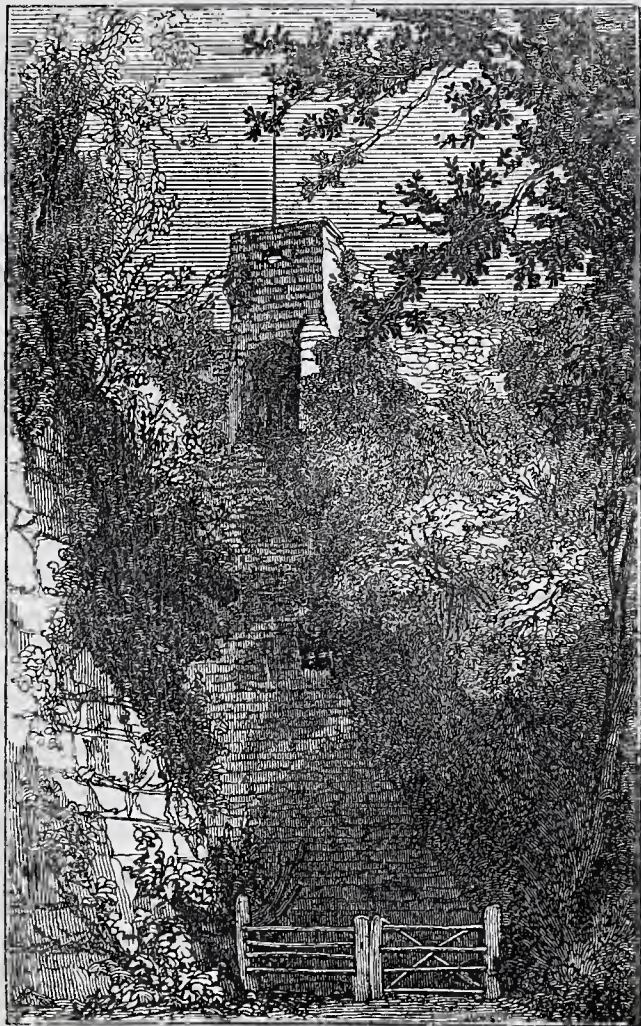
Henry VIII. incurred considerable expense in repairing and altering the castle. Among other works, he caused the banqueting-house, erected by Henry V., to be taken down, and part of it to be rebuilt in the base-court of the castle, near the Swan tower.

After this, nothing particular occurs in the history of the castle until the time of Queen Elizabeth, who, in the fifth year of her reign, bestowed it upon Robert Lord Dudley, her favorite, whom she soon after created baron of Denbigh, and earl of Leicester. From him the castle of Kenilworth and the surrounding domain received most extensive additions and alterations, which are said to have cost him no less than 60,000*l.*—a prodigious sum to be so applied at that period. His principal works consisted in the erection of the grand "Gatehouse" on the north side; for, after having filled up a part of the moat on that side he made the principal entrance from the north, instead of the south, as it had been before: he also erected a large mass of square rooms, at the southeast angle of the upper court, called "Leicester's buildings," and built from the ground two handsome towers at the head of the pool. The one called the "Flood Gate," or "Gallery Tower," stood at the end of the tilt-yard, and contained a spacious and noble room, whence the ladies might conveniently see the exercises of tilting and other sports. The other was called "Mortimer's Tower," either, as Dugdale thinks, after one that stood there, and in which Lord Mortimer lodged at the Round Table festival, or else because Sir John Mortimer was confined there when a prisoner in the reign of Henry VI. Leicester also greatly enlarged the chase. Although his works are of the most recent date, they have the most ancient and ruined appearance, having been built of a brown friable stone, not well calculated to stand the weather.

Sir Walter Scott has given a short description of the appearance which the castle presented in this its most perfect state. This account appears to have been drawn from a comparison of the description given by Laneham, with the details in the survey made in the reign of James I., and with the actual remains of the castle. We may very suitably introduce it here:—

"The outer wall of this splendid and gigantic structure enclosed seven acres, a part of which was occupied by extensive stables, and by a pleasure garden, with its trim arbors and parterres, and the rest forming the large base-court or outer yard of the noble castle. The lordly structure itself, which rose near the centre of this spacious enclosure, was composed of a huge pile of magnificent castellated buildings, apparently of different ages, surrounding an inner court, and bearing in the names attached to each portion of the magnificent mass, and in the armorial bearings which were there blazoned, the emblems of mighty chiefs who had long passed

away, and whose history, could ambition have bent ear to it, might have read a lesson to the haughty favorite who had acquired and was now augmenting this fair domain. A large and massive keep, which formed the citadel of the castle, was of uncertain though great antiquity. It bore the name of Cæsar, probably from its resemblance to that in the tower of London, so called. The external wall of this royal castle was, on the south and west sides, adorned and defended by a lake, partly artificial, across which Leicester had constructed a stately bridge, that Elizabeth might enter the castle by a path hitherto untrodden, instead of the usual entrance to the northward, over which he had erected a gatehouse or barbican, which still exists, and is equal in extent and superior in architecture to the baronial castle of many a northern chief. Beyond the lake lay an extensive chase, full of red deer, fallow deer, roes, and every species of game, and abounding with lofty trees, from among which the extended front and massive towers of the castle were seen to rise in majesty and beauty."



The Keep.

There are few edifices now remaining in England that lay claim to so venerable an antiquity as Carisbrook castle. This celebrated pile stands about a mile to the southwest of Newport, the principal town of the Isle of Wight, and consequently almost in the centre of the island. It is erected upon an eminence, from which it overlooks the town of Carisbrook, now an insignificant village, but which, before Newport rose into importance, enjoyed the dignity of metropolis of the Isle of Wight, under the

feudal lords who possessed the island until 1291, when the last descendant of these petty sovereigns, Isabella de Fortibus, countess of Devon, and lady of the Isle of Wight, surrendered this portion of her vast inheritance to King Edward I. while lying on her death-bed. It is thought by some antiquaries that a portion of the present building was of Saxon construction, as early as the sixth century. After the Norman invasion, the castle was greatly enlarged by William Fitzosborne, Earl of Hereford, to whom it was given by the Conqueror, and additions have since been repeatedly made to it. In the reign of Elizabeth, the buildings were for the first time enclosed by a wall faced with stone, and defended by a deep moat, as they now remain. The space contained within this enclosure amounts to about twenty acres, and the entire circuit of the fortifications is three fourths of a mile. The principal and most ancient part of the castle, however, is that which stands on the west side, next to the entrance, and forms an almost regular parallelogram, with the corners rounded off. Much of this belongs undoubtedly to the Norman age, and a small portion of it is probably Saxon. The keep is built on the north side of the fortress, upon the summit of an artificial mount, of nearly sixty feet in height, the ascent to which is by a flight of seventy-two steps. Only the lower apartment now remains, which is an irregular polygon, of about sixty feet broad in the widest part. Over this there appears to have been originally at least one other story, of which, however, nothing now remains. The prospect from the top is of great beauty and extent, comprehending not only the whole of the island, but a considerable part of Southampton water, and of some of the adjoining counties. In the centre of the keep is a well, of three hundred feet in depth, but which has been for some time covered over as useless and dangerous. In ancient times, such an accommodation must have been indispensable in this the heart of the fortress, and the last retreat of the garrison, when pressed by a besieging enemy. In the earlier ages of English history, Carisbrook castle was frequently attacked, especially by the French. In 1377 it is related that a band of invaders of that nation having made an assault upon it, fell into an ambuscade in a narrow lane in the neighborhood, and were nearly all massacred. The scene of slaughter still retains the name of Deadman's lane.

The most memorable incident in the history of Carisbrook castle, is the detention here of King Charles I. the year before his execution. The unfortunate monarch fled from Hampton Court on the 5th of November, 1647, attended by two confidential servants, but without having determined upon any particular place in which to take refuge. They rode all night, and finding themselves at daybreak in the New Forest in Hampshire, it was resolved to repair to Titchfield, a seat of the earl of Southampton, in the neighborhood of which they were. This, however, was not a place in which his majesty could remain in security; and after some deliberation, it was deemed best to send a message to Colonel Hammond, the governor of the Isle of Wight, intimating the king's desire to avail himself of his protection. Charles thought that he might expect to find a friend in the colonel, who was a nephew of his chaplain, Dr. Henry Hammond: but he was, in fact, a devoted partisan of Cromwell. At first, on receiving the king into Carisbrook castle, he treated him as a guest rather than as a prisoner—permitting him to ride wherever he chose, and to receive all who desired to see him. It was not till after some time that his movements were subjected to any restriction. Hammond then informed him that orders had been sent down for the instant dismissal of all his attendants; and they were accordingly compelled to take their leave the day following. As soon as they were gone, it was further intimated to the unhappy king that he must for the future consider himself as a prisoner within the walls of the castle. He was still, however, allowed as much freedom as was compatible with this species of confinement—being permitted to walk on the ramparts, and to amuse himself in a bowling-green, which Hammond caused to be formed for that purpose in a part of the castle-yard. He usually indulged himself in the former exercise in the morning, and in the latter in the afternoon. Much of his leisure was also occupied in reading; his favorite books being the Bible, the works of Hooker, Bishop Andrews, and Dr. Hammond, Herbert's poems, the *Jerusalem Delivered* of Tasso, in the original, and Fairfax's translation of that poem, Ariosto, and Spenser's *Fairy Queen*. Many persons, it would appear, also still contrived to gain admission to his presence, under the pretext of desiring to be touched for the king's evil. The condition in which he was kept, however, was now undisguisedly that of a prisoner; and his thoughts, as well as those of his friends, were naturally directed to the means by which he might effect his escape. The several

attempts which he made for this purpose may be found detailed in the "Threnodia Carolina" of Sir Thomas Herbert, and still more minutely in Sir Richard Worsley's History of the Isle of Wight, where many particulars are published for the first time, from manuscript documents. The first attempt was made on the 29th of December, and failed through the mismanagement of its conductor, Captain Burley, the captain of Yarmouth castle, who was besides so unfortunate as to be himself apprehended and executed for his share in the enterprise. To Charles the only result was increased severity of treatment, and greater watchfulness on the part of his jailors. Some time after, at the suggestion of a person of the name of Firebrace, who had contrived to find access to him by bribing the sentinels, he was induced to endeavor to escape from his window during the night; but after getting his head through the bars, he could not force through the rest of his body. Aquafortis and files were then conveyed to him; but by this time the governor had obtained some intimation of his former attempt; and when, after having destroyed one of the bars, the king was about to pass through the opening, he observed a number of people on the watch below, and instantly retired to bed. It is said that a Major Rolfe, who happened at the time to have charge of the castle, declared he was ready to have shot his majesty should he have actually commenced making his descent. After these repeated failures in the effort to obtain his liberty, Charles so completely abandoned himself to despair as even to neglect his person, allowing both his hair and his beard to remain unclipped and uncombed, till his appearance became at last savage and desolate in the extreme. In this state he remained till the 18th of September, 1648, when he was permitted to remove to Newport, to confer with commissioners appointed for that purpose by the parliament, on giving his promise that he would not make use of the opportunity to attempt his escape. On the 29th of November he was seized here by a party of soldiers, and conveyed to Hurst castle, on the coast of Hampshire, which he left only to undergo his trial and execution about six weeks after. The apartments in which he was confined at Carisbrook castle are now in ruins, but a window is still pointed out as that by which he made the several attempts that have just been related to regain his liberty. This part of the castle is on the left hand upon entering the first court from the gate. A short distance further on, and on the same side, are the governor's apartments, almost the only portion of the interior of the castle which is now in a state of repair.



Carisbrook Castle; showing the window from which Charles I. attempted to escape.

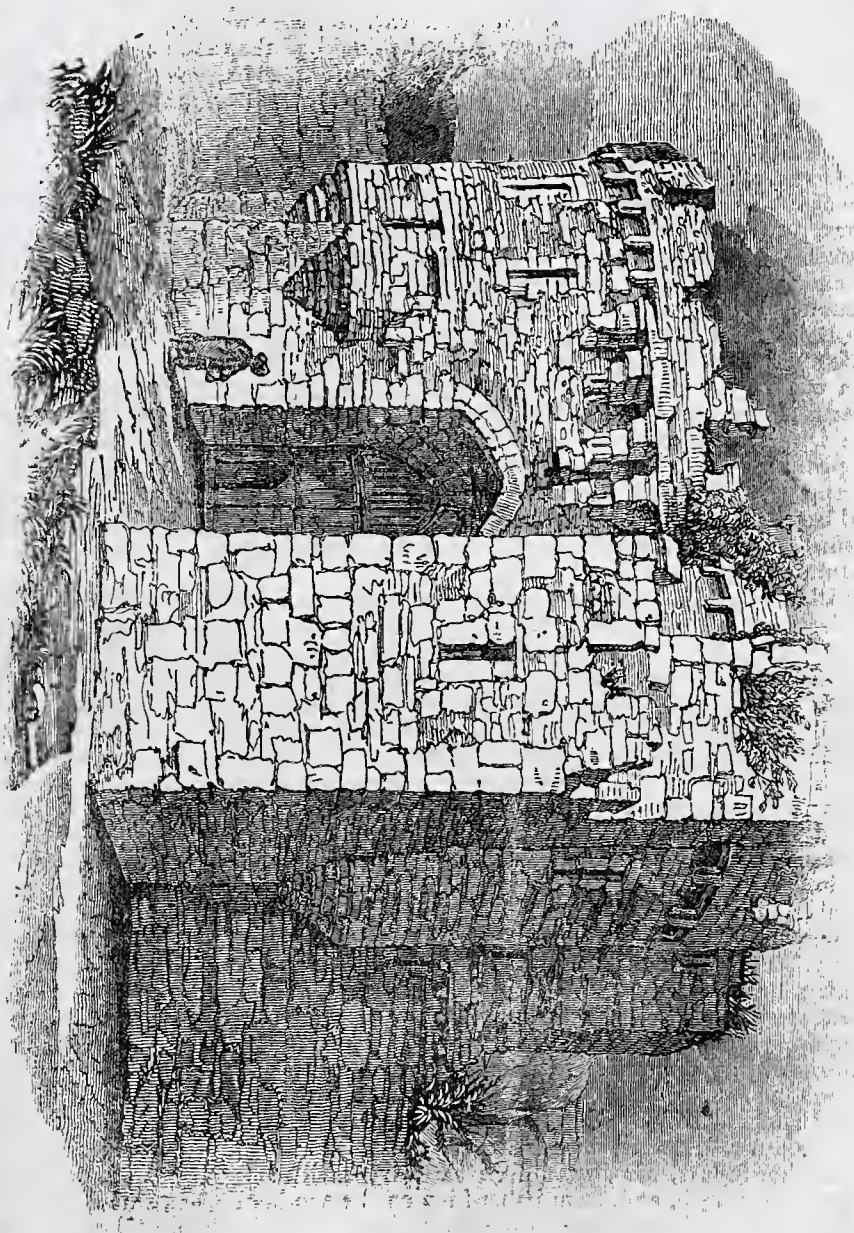
Beaumaris castle was built by Edward I., about the year 1295, in pursuance of that policy which led him to secure his conquests by every precaution which he might think available. He had subdued the Welsh, after an arduous struggle; the last descendant of the ancient British princes had fallen in battle; and Edward aimed at keeping down for ever the insurrectionary spirit which might be expected to manifest itself whenever there was opportunity. The sovereignty of Anglesey, remarks Sir Richard Colt Hoare, in his edition of Giraldus Cambrensis, had been sturdily contested for above four centuries; it was the chosen seat of the Druids; it was the asylum to which the Britons fled for succor from the victorious Romans; it had been the residence of the British princes, and continued to the last to be their strong-hold. The circumstances which immediately preceded the war in which the Welsh were finally subdued, are in substance as follows: Llewelyn, the last and one of the bravest of the sovereign princes of Wales, was obliged, in the year 1277, to sue for peace from Edward I. The terms on which it was granted were humiliating: besides the payment of large sums of money, the prince was required to come to London every Christmas to do homage to the king for his lands. The following story is told by Carte the historian, and it is quoted by Sir Richard Colt Hoare:—

“The barons of Snowdon, with other noblemen of the most considerable families in Wales, had attended Llewelyn to London, when he came thither at Christmas, A. D. 1277, to do homage to King Edward; and bringing, according to their usual custom, large retinues with them, were quartered in Islington and the neighboring villages. These places did not afford milk enough for such numerous trains; they liked neither wine nor the ale of London; and though plentifully entertained, were much displeased at a new manner of living which did not suit their taste, nor perhaps their constitutions. They were still more offended at the crowds of people that flocked about them when they stirred abroad, staring at them as if they had been monsters, and laughing at their uncouth garb and appearance. They were so enraged on this occasion, that they engaged privately in an association to rebel on the first opportunity, and resolved to die in their own country rather than ever come again to London as subjects, to be held in such derision; and when they returned home, they communicated their resentments to their compatriots, who made it the common cause of the country.”

In the war which ensued, which was a severely-contested struggle, Edward advanced into Wales by land, and sent the fleet of the Cinque Ports to Anglesey. When the brother of Llewelyn learned that they had taken that place, he exclaimed, “Llewelyn has lost the finest feather in his tail.” The Welsh king was shortly afterward slain, and when the body was discovered, Edward, says Turner, “sent the head up to London, adorned in derision with a silver crown, that it might be exhibited to the populace in Cheapside, and fixed upon the Tower.” Edward’s military talents and vigor of mind fitted him for his turbulent age; his policy was in many respects in advance of it, but he retained much of its savage fierceness. The brother of Llewelyn attempting to renew the war, was defeated and taken. He was drawn on a hurdle, hanged, and his amputated head sent to London. In the Chronicles of Hollinshed, under the year 1295, there is the following account:—

“The earl of Warwick, hearing that a great number of Welshmen were assembled together, and lodged in a valley betwixt two woods, he chose out a number of horsemen, with certain crossbows and archers, and coming upon the Welshmen in the night, compassed them round about, the which, pitching the ends of their spears in the ground, and turning the points against their enemies, stood at defensive as to keep off the horsemen. But the earl having placed his battle so, that ever betwixt two horsemen there stood a crossbow, a great part of the Welshmen which stood at defence in manner aforesaid with their spears, were overthrown, and broken with the shot of the *quarels*, and then the earl charged the residue with a troop of horsemen, and bare them down with such slaughter, as they had not sustained the like loss of people (as was thought) at any one time before. In the meantime, King Edward, to restrain the rebellious attempts of those Welshmen, caused the woods of Wales to be cut down, wherein before the Welshmen were accustomed to hide themselves in time of danger. He also repaired the castles and holds in that country, and builded some new, as the city and castle of Beaumaris, with other; so that the Welshmen, constrained through hunger and famine, were enforced within a while to the king’s peace.”

The erection of the castle of Beaumaris, though consistant with Edward’s policy,



Beumaris Castle.

was an unnecessary stretch of prudence. He had already broken down the spirit of independence which inspired the native Welsh, without which, as he experienced in Scotland, strongholds are but a slight security. The only notable things which the garrison appear to have done were to quarrel with the country people, and under pretence of keeping them quiet, to oppress them with great severity. In consequence, the garrison was withdrawn from the time of Henry VII. to the year 1642, when, the Earl of Dorset being constable, his deputy furnished it with men and ammunition, and it was retained on behalf of Charles I. The first governor of the castle was a Gascon knight, Sir William Pickmore, who was appointed by Edward I. Twenty-four soldiers were allowed for the guard of the castle and town.

During the civil war, the inhabitants of Anglesey agreed to some strongly-expressed resolutions in behalf of Charles I. But the garrison of Beaumaris did not hold out long against the parliamentary forces; they, however, obtained an honorable capitulation. The castle was surrendered to General Mytton, who appointed Captain Evans his deputy.

The castle was erected on lands belonging to several proprietors, whom Edward I. removed to distant places, remunerating them by estates, probably sequestered.

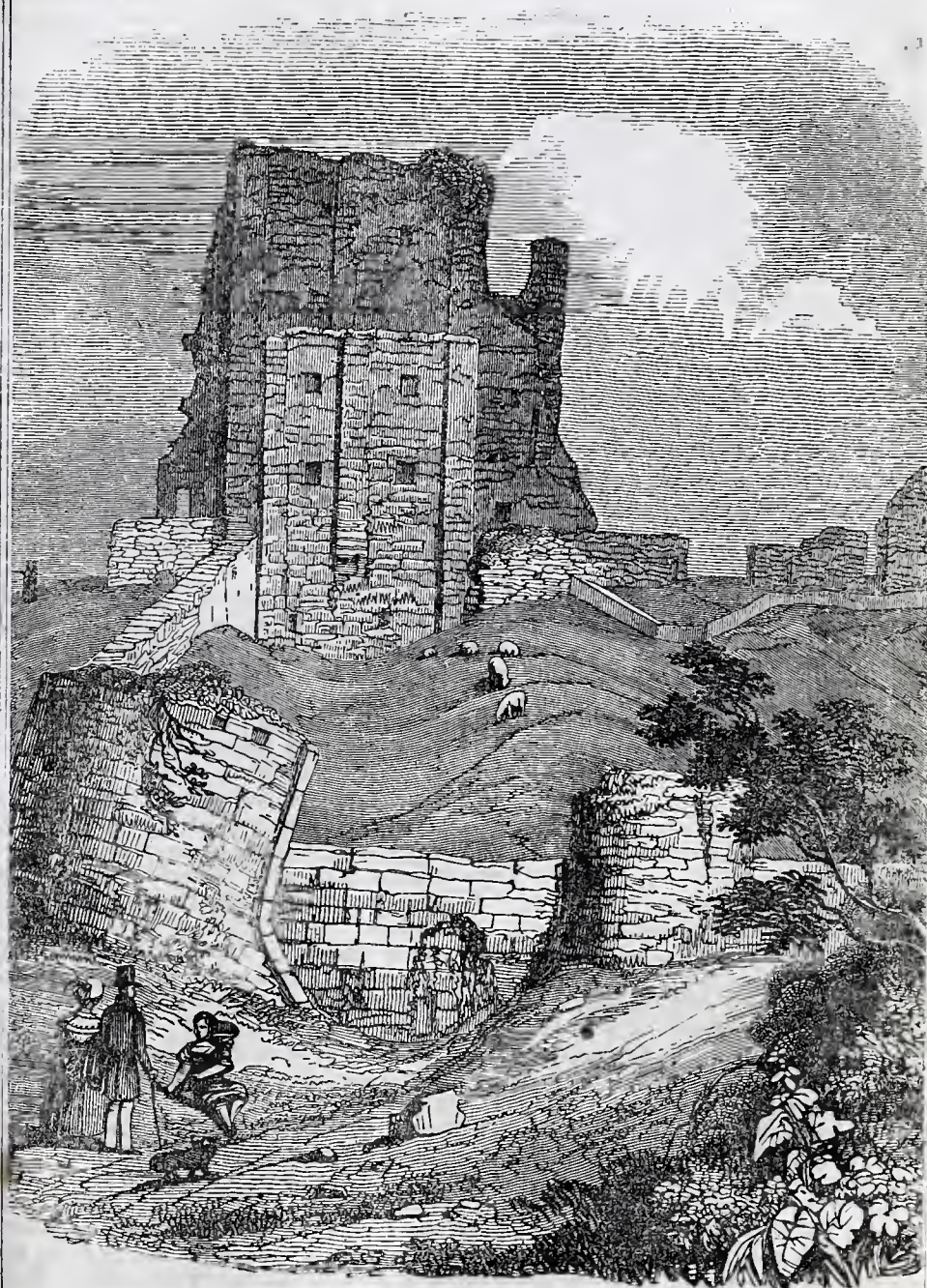
The castle is the property of the crown. Within the walls a tennis-court, fives-court, and bowling-green, have been formed for the amusement of the inhabitants of Beaumaris.

The Dorsetshire coast, at its eastern extremity, is indented by a bay which forms the safe and capacious harbor of Poole. The entrance is only about a quarter of a mile in width—a neck of land from the isle of Purbeck, called South-Haven point, and one from the main land of Dorsetshire, called North-Haven point, projecting into the sea within this distance of each other. The isle of Purbeck is, properly speaking, a peninsula, and forms part of the county of Dorsetshire; it is of an irregular form, approaching to an oval, and twelve miles in length; and being indented by several bays, it varies from seven to ten miles in breadth. The surface is agreeably diversified, and the quarries, shores, and cliffs, present many objects of interest to the naturalist.

The isle of Purbeck is divided into nine parishes, and several hamlets and villages. Corfe-Castle is the only market-town. It was an ancient borough by prescription, and was incorporated by Queen Elizabeth. The government was vested in the mayor and eight burgesses, who, after they had passed the mayor's chair, were called "barons." When the borough was visited under the commission of corporation inquiry, the corporate body refused to give any information respecting their charters and privileges; and from the nature and constitution of this body, and the situation in life of the inhabitants, no particulars on these points could be obtained by the commissioner. In his report it is stated that "the town of Corfe-Castle is of mean appearance, and presents no indication of present prosperity, or of progressive improvement. The census of 1831 shows that, although there were at that time no uninhabited houses in the borough, there were also none that were in a course of building; that the number of inhabited houses was one hundred and fifty-six, the number of families occupying them one hundred and ninety-three, and the total population nine hundred and sixty." The privilege of returning two members to parliament, while towns containing two hundred thousand inhabitants were denied this power of electing representatives, being inconsistent and incompatible with the times, Corfe-Castle was disfranchised under the reform act; and being destitute of the proper elements of self-government, its corporate character also is no longer recognised.

The castle is on the north side of the town, on a steep eminence, and a bridge of four high and narrow arches, which is thrown across a deep moat, now dry, connects it with the town. Edward the Martyr was stabbed at the gate of this castle by order of his mother-in-law, who, with her son, then inhabited it. It has been a place of considerable strength, and, from its position on the southern coast, was doubtless regarded as of great importance to the protection of the kingdom. The castle was, most probably, the precursor of the town.

Tutbury lies about eleven miles southwest of Derby, and about a mile south of the road to Uttoxeter and the potteries. Tutbury castle forms a prominent object to the left in many parts of the road from Derby, but the most picturesque view is obtained of it from a point near the river. The ruins appear towering over the wood-covered hill, and the church is seen on a bare slope a little distance below, while some tall fragments to the right appear like broken pyramids in the elevated horizon. It forms



Corfe Castle, Dorsetshire.

altogether from this point one of those pictures on which the eye of taste delights to dwell.

The castle, or rather its ruin, is situated to the southwest of the town. Built on the summit of a high natural mount, with a deep and rapid river in front, it must once have been a grand and imposing object. The castle yard now forms the home-stead of a farm, and part of the buildings on the southern side, with the addition of a semi-octagonal tower-like entrance, is fitted up as the residence of the farmer; all the other parts are but fragments of walls. The engraving represents the interior of the castle-yard.

It is difficult to determine when Tutbury castle was first erected. From its forming one of the chain of forts on the Mercian frontier, it was probably in existence during the heptarchy, and is conjectured to have been the palace of Offa, of Kenulph, and of Ethelred; the last of whom came to the throne in 674, and, immediately on his accession, "granted to his niece, the pious Werburga, the neighboring village of Hanbury, where she erected a nunnery, in which she was afterward buried." "After a peaceful interval of two hundred years from the accession of Ethelred," says Sir Oswald Mosley, "the town and castle of Tutbury, together with the monastery at Hanbury, were overwhelmed in one common destruction by that formidable irruption of the Danes, who drove the last of the Mercian sovereigns from his throne."

"From this fated period," Sir Oswald continues, "the castle remained a ruin until after the Norman conquest, and the ferocious Danes continued to exercise their tyrannical sway in its vicinity for more than forty years, when the Saxons, assisted by the brave Ethelfleda, daughter of Alfred the Great, succeeded in expelling them from this part of the kingdom. Their triumph, however, was but transitory: the Danes returned, and a second time became masters of the country, until at length (A. D. 1012) the Saxon inhabitants, goaded by oppression, and driven to despair, eagerly embraced King Ethelred's plan of extirpating the whole race by one general massacre, and the opening scene of this bloody tragedy is actually fixed by an ancient historian at Houndhill, about five miles distant from Tutbury."

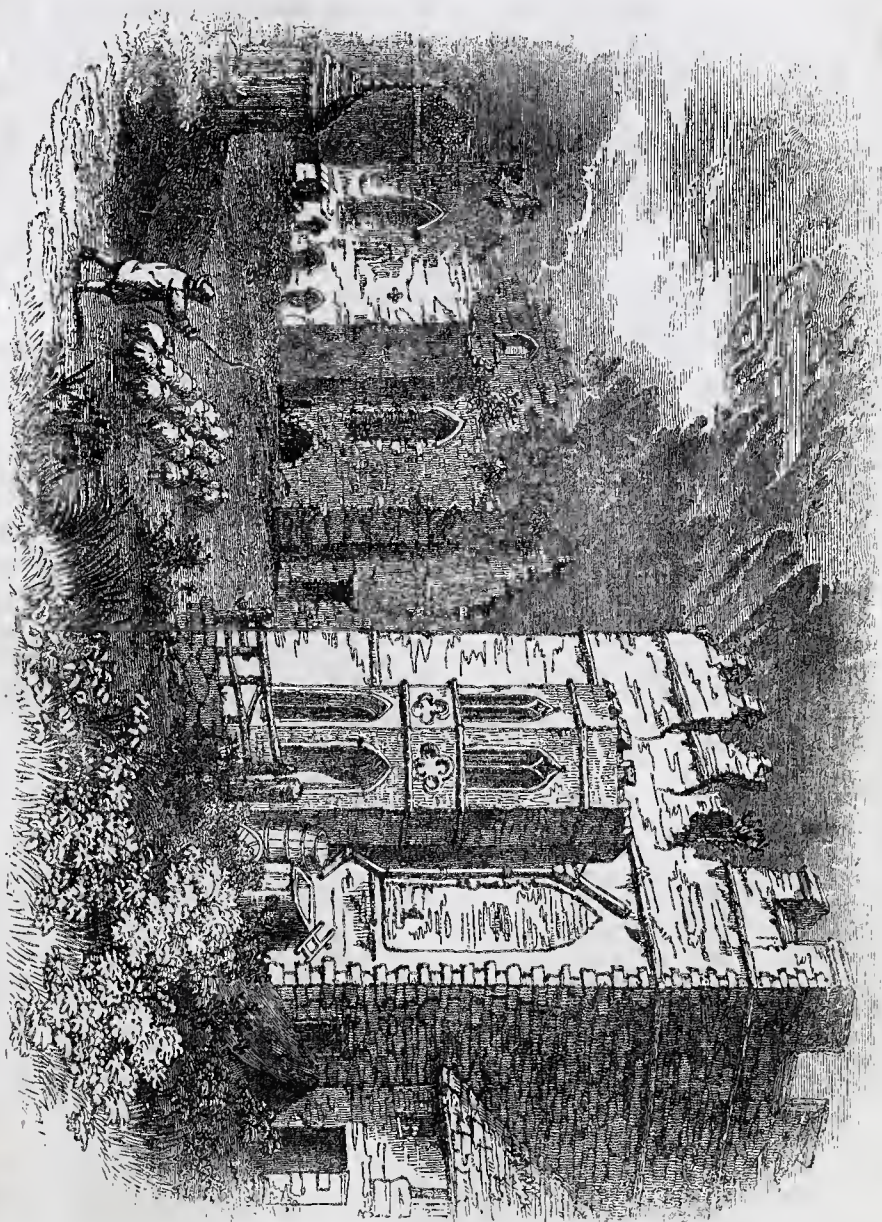
In Domesday we find the castle of Tutbury, with one hundred and forty-six lordships in the surrounding counties, besides many others in various parts of the kingdom, was held by Henry de Ferrers, a particular favorite of William I. He raised the castle from its ruins, built it upon a more capacious and splendid plan, and made it for a time his principal residence; he rebuilt the citadel or keep, "excavated the fosse, and enclosed the whole of the present area within the walls of his castle," and founded in its immediate vicinity "a priory, which he and his wife Bertha richly endowed."

The castle of Tutbury continued to be the residence of the family of Ferrers till the latter end of the reign of Henry III., when, in consequence of the repeated acts of rebellion of Robert de Ferrers, earl of Derby, it was nearly destroyed by the king's army; and the lordship or honor, after repeated acts of clemency on the part of the king, was finally forfeited, and became by royal grant the property of Edmund Plantagenet, earl of Lancaster, second son of the king.

The castle seems not to have met with much reparation from the hands of Earl Edmund; but his successor, Thomas, the second earl of Lancaster, not only repaired the ravages it had sustained while in the hands of the earl of Derby, but gave to it a grandeur and magnificence which it had not previously possessed. He made it his principal residence, and, from the more than princely style in which he lived, became a benefactor to the surrounding country, giving a stimulus to the industry of his tenantry, and finding a mart for all their productions.

On the accession of Henry of Bolingbroke to the crown, Tutbury, and the other parts of the duchy of Lancaster, which had descended to him as duke of Lancaster, became the property of the kings of England. Its popularity passed away—other events fixed its proprietors in other parts of the kingdom, and few among them ever condescended to rest a night in this once-favored castle. Henry VII., indeed, whose reign was comparatively peaceful, sometimes brought his court hither to enjoy the amusement of hunting in the adjacent forest of Needwood, and of one of his excursions we find the following anecdote:—

"One day, during the ardor of the chase, he was separated from his companions, and, having in vain sought to join them again through the thick masses of wood with which the forest abounded, he determined at length to extricate himself from his difficulties by proceeding to the nearest village, and inquiring his way thence to Tut-



Interior of Tutbury Castle-Yard.

bury. It so happened that, for this purpose, he stopped at the house of a poor man named Taylor, in the village of Barton-under-Needwood, whose wife had, not long before, presented him with three sons at a birth. The father volunteered his services to conduct the king (who did not disclose his rank) to the place of his inquiry; and while he was making himself ready for that purpose, the mother introduced the three little babes to the stranger at the cottage-door. The king was much pleased with the adventure, and, in reward for the poor man's services, undertook to pay for the education of the three children, if they should live long enough to be put to school. Taylor expressed his grateful thanks, and the king did not forget his promise. When the three children attained man's estate, they had made such good use of the learning thus afforded them, that they all became doctors in divinity, and obtained good preferment. John Taylor, the eldest of them, became archdeacon of Derby, rector of Sutton Coldfield, and clerk of the parliament that sat in the seventh year of the reign of Henry VIII. He was made master of the rolls in 1528, and died in 1534; but not before he had proved his gratitude to the Almighty Disposer of events for the singular mercies extended to himself and his brothers by erecting the present church of Barton, near the site of the cottage in which they first saw light."

Tutbury castle seems not to have been noticed during subsequent reigns; in that of Elizabeth, it acquired notoriety as being, at two different periods, the prison of the fair, but unfortunate queen of Scotland.

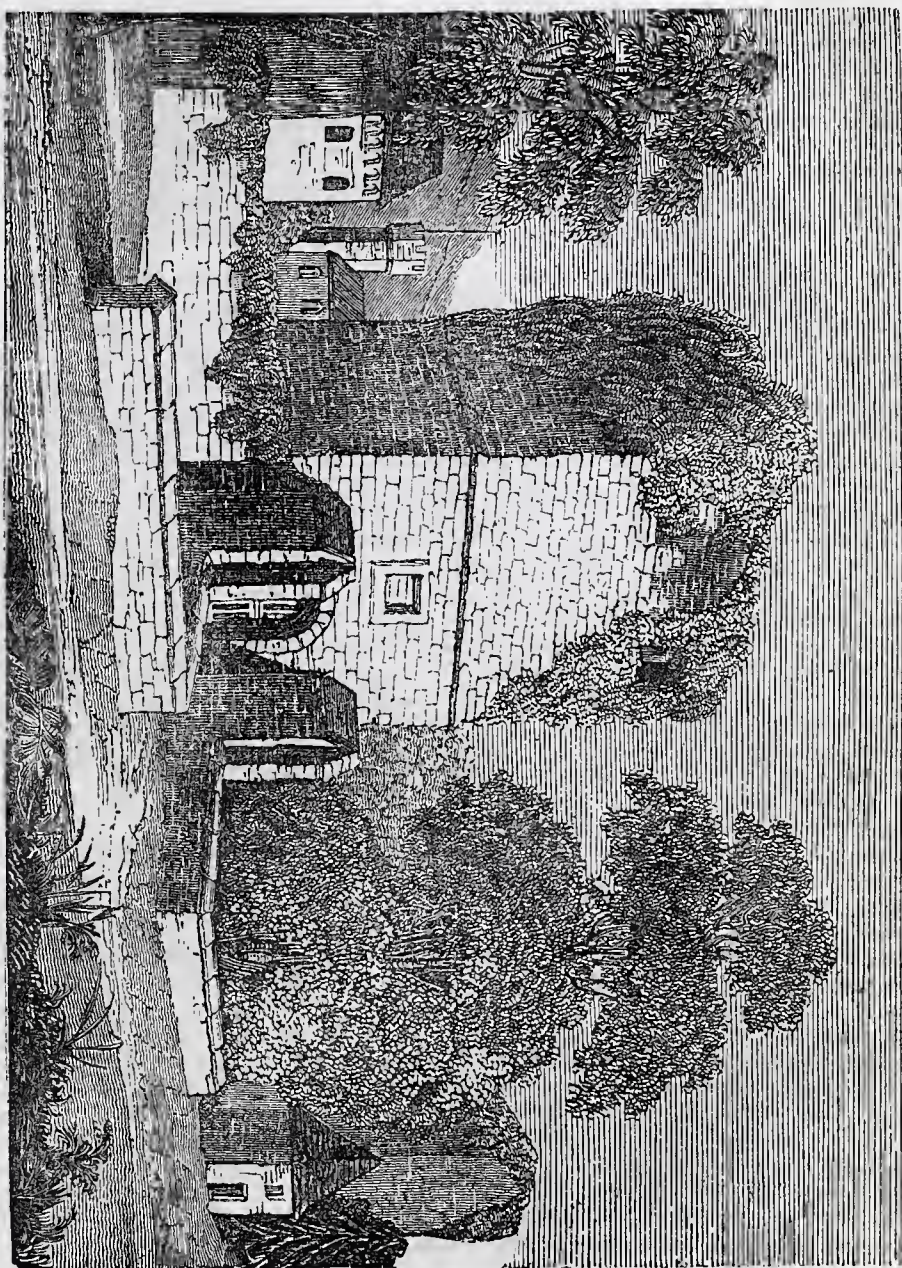
Sir Ralph Sadler gives a very accurate description of the state of Tutbury castle during the last imprisonment of the unfortunate Mary: "The whole area, containing about three acres, was encompassed on all sides but one with a strong and lofty embattled wall and deep fosse, as the present ruins plainly show. The principal entrance was by a bridge under the great gateway to the north; at a small distance to the left of this gateway stood a building containing Mr. Dorell's (the superintendent) office and bedchamber, and four other rooms. Along this northeast wall, about one hundred and sixty feet from the entrance, was a lofty tower embattled, containing four rooms, viz., a storehouse at the bottom, above Curle's apartment, over which was the doctor's, and at the top the chief cook's. This tower was then much shaken and cleft, but it still forms a prominent feature among the ruins. At a little distance from this began the principal suite of the queen's apartments, which did not overlook the walls, but formed a long line of low buildings, on the eastern side of the area; they contained the queen's dining-chamber and closets adjoining, her bedchamber, cabinet, place for wood and coals, and her gentlewomen's apartments." The site of the present farmer's house were storerooms, kitchen, scullery, &c.; and where the modern-erected round tower now stands upon the mount was the keep, called Julius's tower, even at that time in a state of ruin. The dungeons or vaults under the greater part of the building were used as storerooms for provisions and goods.

In August, 1636, Tutbury was visited by King Charles I., and in 1634 he is stated to have spent a fortnight here. This was before the commencement of his troubles; but when he had decided on an appeal to the sword, he sent a mandate to the high sheriff of Staffordshire, commanding him to raise forces, both horse and foot, at the expense of the county, and to place them as a garrison in the castle of Tutbury: this was in November, 1642. On the 24th of May, 1645, the king himself, accompanied by Prince Rupert and a large army, took up his abode at Tutbury, and the troops were quartered in the surrounding villages. This was on Whitsunday, and on the following Tuesday the king marched off for Ashby-de-la-Zouch and Leicester. The battle of Naseby, which decided the affairs of the king, took place on the 14th of June; and on the 12th of August, 1645, the unfortunate monarch, attended by about one hundred foot soldiers, visited Tutbury for the last time.

The castle of Tutbury was one of the last places within the county of Stafford that held out for the king; the natural strength of its situation, and the well-known bravery of its garrison, rendered it almost impregnable. Repeated attempts had been made by the parliament forces to take it.

It was surrendered to Sir William Brereton on the 20th of April, 1646, on terms more honorable than are generally granted. An order of parliament for the total demolition of the castle soon followed, and this majestic pile was once more reduced to ruin.

Upton castle is situated on the western bank of the river Medway, a little below Chatham, on the shore opposite to it. According to Kilbourne, the castle was built by Queen Elizabeth, in the third year of her reign, for the defence of the river; "but



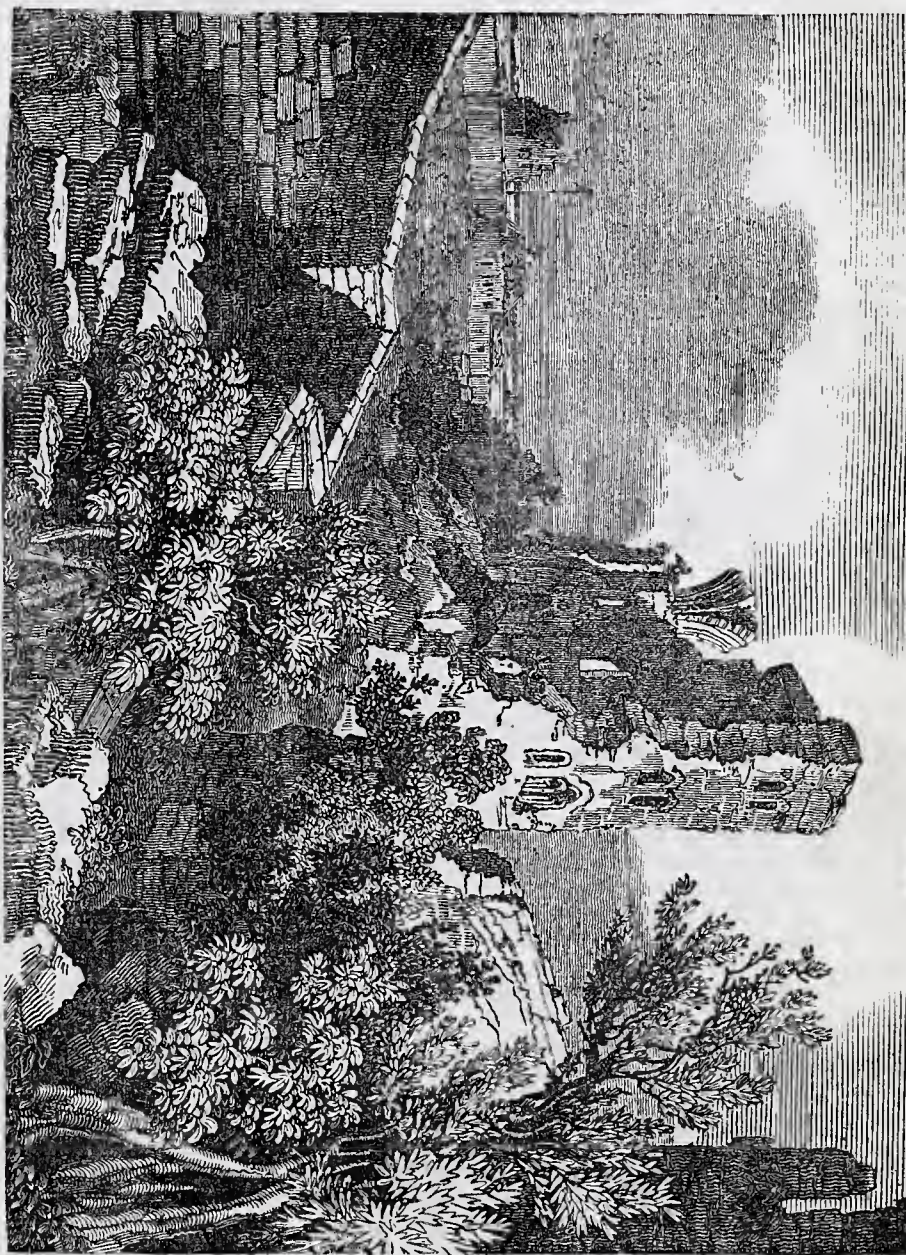
Remains of Upnor Castle.

as a fort," says Grose, "this place has never been of much consequence, especially as it was very injudiciously placed; and it has therefore very properly been converted to a powder magazine." It derives its chief interest, perhaps, from the fact that it is one of the last, if not the last, places of defence in England built on the principle of the ancient castles.

It is built chiefly of stone. Its external figure is a parallelogram, much longer than broad, the largest side facing the water. It has two towers at the extremities, the southernmost of which is appropriated to the use of the governor, but, on account of its unfitness for his reception, he never resides there: the entrance is in the centre of the west side. On the east side, next the river, are the remains of some stone walls, which seem to have formed a salient angle, like a modern ravelin. Here, probably, was a platform and battery, but the spot is now covered by high palisades, with a crane for shipping powder. Hasted said, more than forty years since, that there had not for many years been a gun mounted on the castle for service, nor indeed a platform to receive one. In the military establishment for 1659, the garrison consisted of the governor, a gunner, a servant, two corporals, one drummer, and thirty soldiers.

The only period at which this castle proved of any utility was in the reign of Charles II., in June, 1677, when the Dutch, under the famous Admiral De Ruyter, suddenly appeared at the mouth of the Thames, during a protracted negotiation, and detached his vice-admiral, Van Ghent, with seventeen of his lighter ships and eight fireships, to sail up the Medway. Van Ghent took the fort of Shcerness with little difficulty, and, after destroying the stores, made dispositions to proceed up the river. In the meantime Monk, duke of Albemarle, made every effort that the suddenness of the surprise would admit to render the attempt abortive. He sunk several ships in the channel of the river, and drew a chain across, behind which he placed the *Unity*, the *Matthias*, and the *Charles the Fifth*—three large men-of-war that had just been taken from the Dutch, who were then advancing very fast, and, having the advantage of wind and tide, passed through the sunken ships and broke the chain. The three ships that guarded it were instantly in one tremendous blaze; and Van Ghent continued to advance until, with six men-of-war and five fire-ships, he came opposite Upnor castle; but he there met so warm a reception from Major Scott, the commandant of the castle, and Sir Edward Spragge, who directed the battery on the opposite shore, that he thought it best to draw off, his ships having received considerable damage. On their return, however, they burnt the *Royal Oak*, the *Great James*, and the *Loyal London*. The former was commanded by the brave Captain Douglass, who, in the confusion of the day, had received no directions to retire, and who perished with his ship. His last words were: "It never shall be said that a Douglass quitted his post without orders."

The ruin of Scarborough castle, on the coast of Yorkshire, is one of the most remarkable objects that stand out from the somewhat tame prospect presented by much of the northern part of England, as seen from the German ocean. It crowns a precipitous rock, whose eastern termination, which advances into the sea, rises about three hundred feet above the waters. The principal part of the ancient castle now remaining stands at a considerable distance back from this bold and inaccessible front, but on ground which is very nearly as elevated. It is a huge, square tower, still nearly one hundred feet high, but the walls of which show, by their ragged summits and by other indications, that its original height must have been considerably greater. Each side is between fifty and sixty feet in length; but the walls being about twelve feet thick, the space in the interior is only thirty feet square. This enclosed area is now open to the sky; but marks are still discernible of vaultings which had formerly divided the ascent into three stories, each of which must have been about thirty feet from the floor to the ceiling. An immense fireplace still remains on the ground floor; but beneath that there is another apartment, hollowed out under the earth, which is now filled with stones and rubbish. The walls on the outside are faced with hewn stones of a square shape, and are pierced in various places with windows, six feet deep and three broad, formed by semicircular arches resting on strong pillars. This tower was probably the keep of the ancient castle, and as usual has been preserved from destruction by its extraordinary solidity and strength, long after time has swept away nearly all the surrounding parts of the building. It stands immediately within the great gate of entrance to the fortress, which is at the western extremity of the enclosure, and of which this tower was no



Ruins of Scarborough Castle.

doubt the main defence. The access to the promontory from this side is by a steep ascent; and the gate is guarded by a deep fosse or ditch, with a drawbridge over it. The whole enclosed space comprehends about nineteen acres; and the fosse before the gate is continued along the entire length of the wall leading southward from that point to the sea. As the old feudal stronghold looks down upon the sea on the one hand, it has the town of Scarborough stretched below it and around it on the other.

Scarborough castle was built about the year 1136, by William, earl of Albemarle and Holderness, one of the most powerful of the Norman nobility then settled in England. His grandfather, Odo of Campania, had come over with the Conqueror, who had given him one of his own daughters, Adeliza, in marriage. William, surnamed Le Gros, or the fat, being possessed of extensive estates in Yorkshire, was permitted by King Stephen to build this fortress as a residence and defence for himself against the turbulent and only half-subdued inhabitants of the district. When Henry II. came to the throne, with the view of curbing the power of his fierce nobility, he ordered the demolition of most of those places of strength, which, in the preceding reigns, had been erected in all parts of the kingdom; but, on viewing the castle of Scarborough, he was struck with the advantages of its position, which made it quite impregnable in those times; and instead of destroying it he only seized upon it and declared it the property of the crown. It has ever since remained one of the royal castles; and it is still occupied by a small garrison, consisting usually of a few invalids, who are accommodated in barracks of modern erection.

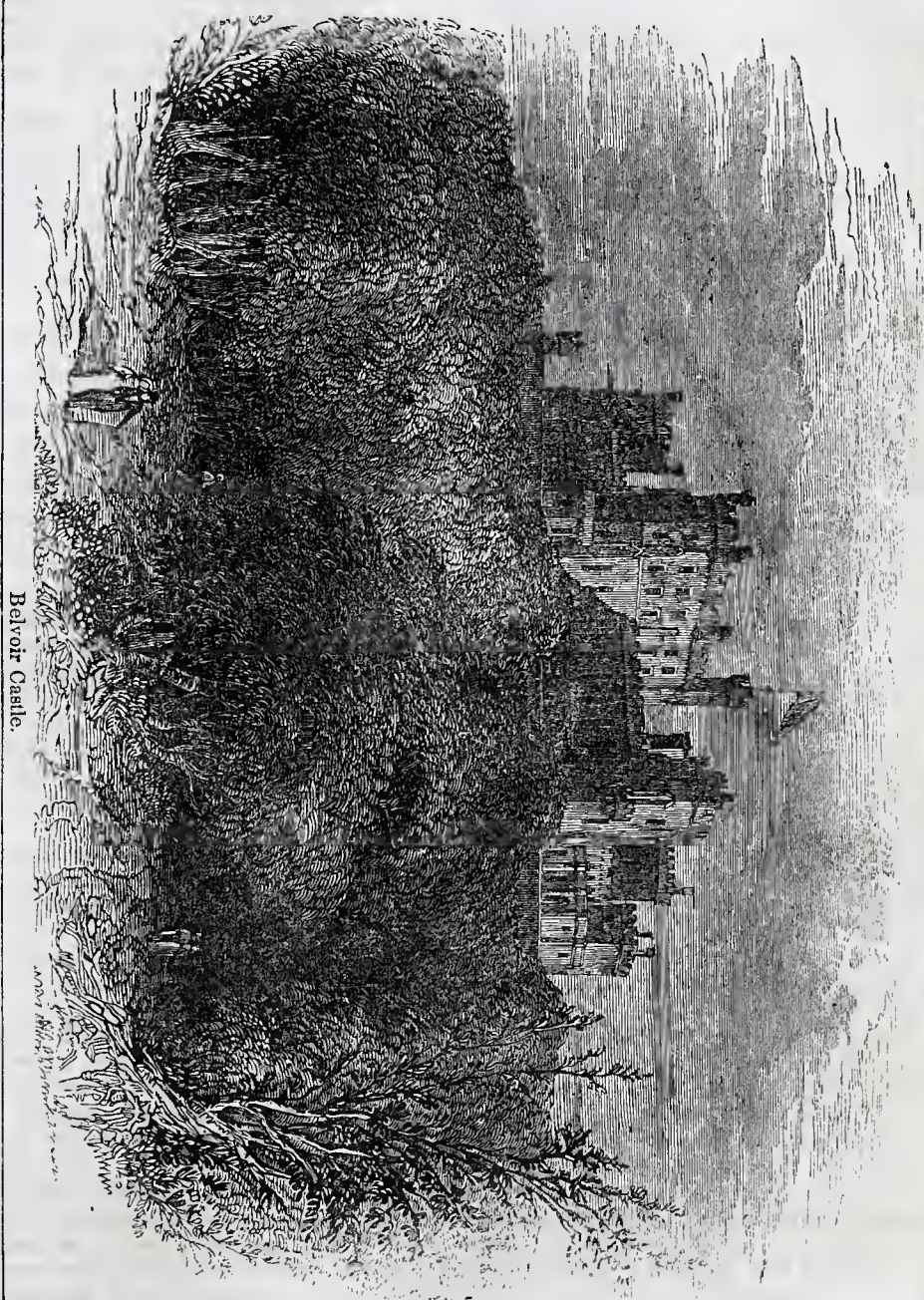
The castle, after it was taken possession of by Henry II., is stated to have been enlarged and strengthened by that king; and one old chronicler asserts that he entirely rebuilt it. We may suppose from this, that the additions which he made to it were very extensive. Its subsequent history has been elaborately investigated by Mr. T. Hinderwell, in his "History of Scarborough."

The most memorable event in its history is the siege it sustained in the civil wars of the seventeenth century, when it was held for the king by Sir Hugh Cholmley. The parliamentary forces sat down before it in the latter part of the year 1643; but the first assault was made on the 18th of February, 1644, under the command of Sir John Meldrum, a Scotch military adventurer, of high renown for courage and ability. By this attack the besiegers obtained possession of the town; but the castle resisted their boldest efforts. They afterward took up their principal station in the parish church, which is only a few hundred yards from the castle gate; and against this old building, accordingly, the cannonade of the garrison was directed with such effect, that the east end of it, forming the choir, was in a short time battered down. A few years ago it still remained a heap of ruins. On the 17th of May, 1645, another attempt was made to storm the fortress, which was again repelled with great slaughter of the assailants, Meldrum himself having received a wound, of which he died on the 3d of June following. By this time, however, both the strength and resources of the garrison were nearly exhausted; and compelled at length, by disease and famine, which had reduced his men to a few miserable invalids, the governor, on the 22d of June, surrendered the place on honorable conditions to Sir Matthew Boynton, who had been appointed Meldrum's successor.

A few years after this, Scarborough castle stood another siege; its governor, Sir Matthew Boynton, the successor, and perhaps the son, of the person of the same name to whom Cholmley had surrendered, having, in 1648, declared for the king. He did not, however, stand out so long as Cholmley had done; and the place fell into the hands of the parliamentary forces, on the 19th of December in the same year. This is the last occasion on which Scarborough castle figures in military annals.

Belvoir castle is built on a high and insulated mount in Framland Hundred, in the northeastern extremity of Leicestershire, on the very confines of Lincolnshire. Although the present building is not of a more ancient date than the time of Charles II., the commanding nature of its situation, surrounded as it is by a comparatively flat extent of country, renders it a remarkably picturesque object. In viewing the remains of an old building we believe we see before us a record of the many interesting events which have taken place within its walls or in its immediate vicinity; and although we may not be aware of the particulars of its history, our fancy will conjure up imaginary scenes to the truthfulness and reality of which we willingly render our belief.

The hill on which the castle of Belvoir stands is supposed to have been thrown



Belvoir Castle.

up by the Romans when in possession of this island; though it is probable that there was a mount here before that time, and that they only assisted nature in rendering it steeper, loftier, and of a more imposing appearance.

It is very steep in parts, and from the summit affords a view of considerable extent and beauty. Peck, the antiquarian, amused himself by making out a list of the different towns and villages which may be seen from the castle, and he enumerates no less than one hundred and seventy-four places within the circle bounded by the horizon; "but," says Nichols, in his "History of Leicestershire," in which work this list is printed, "the grand prospect of all is that which the duke of Rutland sees hence, viz., two-and-twenty manors of his own paternal inheritance."

The old castle, which existed on the site of the present mansion until the middle of the seventeenth century, was of considerable antiquity. It was founded in the eleventh century by Robert de Todeni, a noble Norman who accompanied William the Conqueror to England, and held the office of standard-bearer to the king. It has been said that there was before this time a fortified building erected on the spot by the Romans; but although several Roman remains have been discovered in the vicinity, and it is possible that Belvoir may have been one of the stations of the Romans, it is improbable that any extensive building was erected by them.

Robert de Todeni died in 1088, and the estate has continued in his family ever since, the present duke of Rutland being lineally descended from him. The castle appears to have afforded a very quiet home to its proprietors until the time of Henry VI., when it suffered greatly from the forces of Edward IV., as Leland notifies in his Itinerary. "The Lord Ros took King Henry the sixth's parte agaynst King Edward; whereupon the Lord Ros's landes stood as confiscate, King Edward prevailinge; and Belvoir castle was given in keeping to the Lord Hastings; the which coming thither upon a tyme to peruse the groundes, and to lye in the castle, was sodainely repelled by Mr. Harrington, a man of poure thereaboutes, and friend to the Lord Ros; whereupon the Lord Hastings came thither another tyme with a strong poure, and upon a raging wyll spoiled the castle, defacing the roofes, and taking the leades of them, wherewith they were all covered. Then felle all the castell to ruin; and the timber of the roofes, onkivorid, rotted away; and the soile between the walls at last grew full of elders, and no habitation was there till that of late days the eyrle of Rutlande hath made it fairer than ever it was."

The rebuilding and improvement of the castle was completed in 1555, by the son of this earl of Rutland, Henry, afterward the second earl. Leland, about that time, thus notices it: "It is a strange sight to se by how many steppes of stone the way goeth up from the village to the castel. In the castel be two faire gates; and the dungeon is a faire round tower now turned to pleasure, as a place to walk in, and to se all the country about, and raylid about the round [wall], and a garden [plot] in the middle. There is also a welle of a grete depth in the castelle, and the spring thereof is very good." This well still exists, and has been found to be one hundred and thirteen feet deep.

In the year 1603, in the time of Roger, the fifth earl of Rutland, Belvoir became the scene of much festivity on the occasion of the visit of James I. in his progress from Edinburgh to London.

In 1645, during the unhappy conflict between the king and parliament, the castle was used as a depôt for the royal forces, and in August of that year the king for several days remained there; but it appears that the castle was betrayed into the hands of Charles by the governor of the castle, a servant of the earl's, who was himself a parliamentarian. The utility of the castle, as affording shelter to parties of the royal forces, who by sudden and unexpected sallies rendered themselves extremely obnoxious to the opposing troops posted in the neighborhood, being perceived by the parliamentarian general, it was determined forthwith to endeavor to obtain it for their own use. Accordingly, in the winter of 1645-'46 it was subjected to a siege which lasted four months, at the expiration of which time it was forced to surrender, and General Poyntz took possession of the ruined walls on the 3d of February, 1646.

In 1649, when the county was restored to a comparatively quiet state, the parliament with the consent of the earl of Rutland, ordered the castle to be demolished, adjudging the earl 1,500*l.* as a compensation. After its demolition the earl resided principally at Haddon, in Derbyshire; but after the restoration he returned to Belvoir, in the enjoyment of the king's favor, and erected the present mansion, which,

with the surrounding gardens, plantations, and ornamental grounds, was completed in 1668.

After this time we have little to record of the history of this mansion, until we arrive at the year 1695, when a marriage of a member of the Rutland family was celebrated here with even more cordial and extravagant festivity than the annals of that time of old-fashioned gayety generally exhibit.

This was the marriage of Lord Roos, afterward the second duke of Rutland, to Katherine, the second daughter of William Lord Russell, which took place on the 17th of August, 1693, and which Lady Russell in one of her letters characterizes as one of the "best matches in England" for her daughter.

The following description, by Sir James Forbes, of the ceremonies attending this event, will be found among the "Russell Letters":—

"I could not miss this opportunity of giving your ladyship some account of Lord Roos and Lady Roos's journey, and their reception at Belvoir, which looked more like the progress of a king and queen through their country than that of a bride and bridegroom going home to their father's house. At their first entry into Leicestershire they were received by the high-sheriff, at the head of all the gentlemen of the country, who all paid their respects and complimented the lady-bride at Harborough.

"She was attended next day to this place by the same gentlemen, and by thousands of other people who came from all parts of the country to see her, and to wish them both joy, even with huzzas and acclamations. As they drew near to Belvoir our train increased, with some coaches, and with fresh troops of aldermen and corporations, beside a great many clergymen, who presented the bride and bridegroom (for so they are still called) with verses upon their happy marriage. I can not better represent their first arrival at Belvoir than by the Woburn song that Lord Bedford liked so well; for at the gate were four-and-twenty fiddlers all in a row, four-and-twenty trumpeters with their tantara-rara's, four-and-twenty ladies, and as many parsons; and in great order they went in procession to the great apartment, where the usual ceremony of saluting and wishing of joy passed, but still not without something represented in the song, as very much tittle-tattle and fiddle-faddle. After this the time passed away till supper in visiting all the apartments of the house, and in seeing the preparations for the sack-posset, which was the most extraordinary thing I did ever see, and much greater than it was represented to be. After supper, which was exceedingly magnificent, the company went in procession to the great hall, the bride and bridegroom first, and all the rest in order, two and two: then it was the scene opened, and the great cistern appeared, and the healths began, first in spoons, sometime after in silver cups; and though the healths were many, and great variety of names given to them, it was observed, after one hour's hot service, the posset had not sunk above one inch; which made my Lady Rutland call in all the family, and then upon their knees the bride and bridegroom's healths, with prosperity and happiness, were drunk in tankards brim-full of sack-posset. This lasted till twelve o'clock."

The general features of the mansion at Belvoir may be gathered from our engraving. The east front of the building is eighty-four yards long, and the whole pile of buildings has a fine old castellated appearance.

The castle called "Prudhoe," is situated in the county of Northumberland, on the south side of the river Tyne, about eight miles from Newcastle; its name is descriptive of its situation on a commanding or *proud eminence*.

We have no distinct information concerning the origin of this castle, the earliest accounts in which it is mentioned describing it as already existing. Grose, however, fixes the date of its foundation somewhere about the year 627, and considers that it was rebuilt about the year 1060. Subsequently to the Conquest, the castle fell into the possession of the family of the Umfravilles, who came into the country with the Conqueror. The last member of the family to which the castle belongs, who seems to have occupied it as a residence, was Henry Percy, the brother of Thomas, earl of Northumberland, who is described as having been its inmate in the year 1557. We shall now draw from Hutchinson a description of the ruins as they appeared at a comparatively recent period, afterward mentioning the alterations which have since taken place.

The castle of Prudhoe stands on the summit of a steep promontory, which communicates with the adjoining grounds by a narrow neck and pass toward the south. The ground on which the castle stands is guarded by an outward wall toward the



Prudhoe Castle, Northumberland.

Tyne, built on the brink of the cliffs, which in this part are not less than sixty feet in perpendicular height above the plain which intervenes between the castle and the river; this wall is at intervals defended by square bastions. The entrance to the castle is from the south; and on approaching, the structure when viewed from the heights still makes a very noble and formidable appearance. The narrow neck of land leading to the entrance was formerly cut through by a deep ditch, over which a drawbridge gave access to the outward gate. This gate was originally defended by an outwork and a tower, as appears by their ruins. The superstructure of the inner gate is a lofty embattled square tower, about sixty feet high, now so mantled with ivy that the windows, loopholes, and apertures are almost wholly concealed. To the right, the outward wall extended to some distance, terminated by a turret, the wall of which is embattled, and there the landscape is closed by a fine grove of stately trees. The outer wall to the left, from the inner gateway, extends to a considerable distance without any turret or bastion, over which several interior buildings, and among them the remains of a chapel, are discovered in all the confusion of ruin. Above all this rises a square tower, the ancient keep of the fortress, which overlooks the castle with considerable grandeur. It is twenty-five yards high, and eighteen in breadth, without ornaments or windows, but having a square exploratory tower at the southwest corner. The wall, still extending to the left, is, at its angle, defended by a square bastion with open loopholes; it then turns northward, and is terminated by a broken circular tower, situated on the brink of the cliff.

The first gate admits to a covered way, about thirty paces in length, which leads to the inner gate, from which a sallyport opens on each side. The second gateway is formed by a circular arch, above which rises a high tower, the windows in which show that it consisted of three tiers of apartments. The roof of the gateway is arched in semicircles, with an aperture in the centre, whence those in the upper chamber might annoy an enemy who had forced the gate.

From the inner gate the visiter enters an open area, which is now so blocked up with a farmyard and tenement, that it is not easy to obtain an idea of its original magnitude. It appears, however, that an open area had surrounded the great tower, which does not show any means of communication with the outworks, but seems to have stood apart, on an eminence in the centre.

The outward wall was defended on the angle to the southwest by a large square bastion, with loopholes; and to the northwest by a circular tower containing several tiers of low chambers, singular in their form and height; the inhabitants could not stand erect in them at the time of defence. Toward the river, and northward, the wall is guarded by several small, square bastions; and toward the southeast, a small mount, placed within the walls, overlooks the ditch which guards the southern side, and terminates at the brink of the cliffs. The large tower is in ruins, only the southern wall now standing; and not one bastion remains entire. A passage in the centre wall runs from one bastion to another. In several places steps ascend from the area to the top of the wall, which is broad enough to have allowed the armed men of the garrison to pass each other on it, protected by a parapet.

This is the substance of the description given by Hutchinson. Since his day, time has made some alterations in the condition and appearance of the ruin. Part of the main tower has fallen down; but the duke of Northumberland, being anxious to preserve, as long as possible, the remains of this very old baronial castle, caused the further progress of decay to be arrested by the repair of those parts which were in the most dilapidated condition. His intentions in this respect appear to have been judiciously and carefully executed.

At the southeastern corner of England, upon the summit of a chalk cliff from three hundred and fifty to four hundred feet in height, and at the distance of about twenty-one miles from the opposite coast of France, stands Dover castle. The town of Dover has been built to the west of, and immediately below it. The antiquity of the castle very far exceeds that of the town, and all that the latter contains worthy of remark is of modern date. It is, however, generally known as the key to the continent, and as possessing a very complete artificial harbor. The coasts of Sussex and Kent, as well as the opposite coast of France, are without natural harbors; but, as a proof how far art has supplied this want, the harbors of Dover and Ramsgate, among others, may be referred to with just pride.

The fortifications of the castle are of different epochs, Roman, Saxon, Norman, and of later date. The watchtower (an octagonal building), the parapet, the peculiar

form of the ditch, all exhibit the hand of the Roman architect; and there is no doubt that the Romans had here one of their stationary posts, or walled encampments. The foundations of the watchtower are laid in a bed of clay, which was a usual practice with the Roman masons; and it is built with a stalactical composition, instead of stone, intermixed with courses of Roman tiles. The watchtower and the ancient church are the only remaining buildings within the Roman fortress. What the precise origin of this church was is not known, but it was consecrated to Christian worship by St. Augustine, when he was in England in the sixth century.

The Saxons extended the groundwork of the Roman fortress, and erected a fortress differing materially from that of the Romans, as it consisted merely of perpendicular sides without parapets, surrounded by deep ditches. In the centre of the old Saxon works is the keep, which is, however, of Norman origin, the foundation having been laid in 1153. It is a massy square edifice, the side on the southwest being one hundred and three feet; that on the northwest one hundred and eight feet; and the other two one hundred and twenty-three feet each. The north turret of the keep is ninety-five feet above the ground, which is three hundred and seventy-three feet above the level of the sea. The view from it in a clear day comprises the North Foreland, Ramsgate pier, the isle of Thanet, the valley of Dover, and the towns of Calais and Boulogne, with the intermediate French coast. The rest of the fortifications are, for the most part, of Norman origin, but present the altered and improved appearance which has been given them by a succession of repairs for a course of centuries.

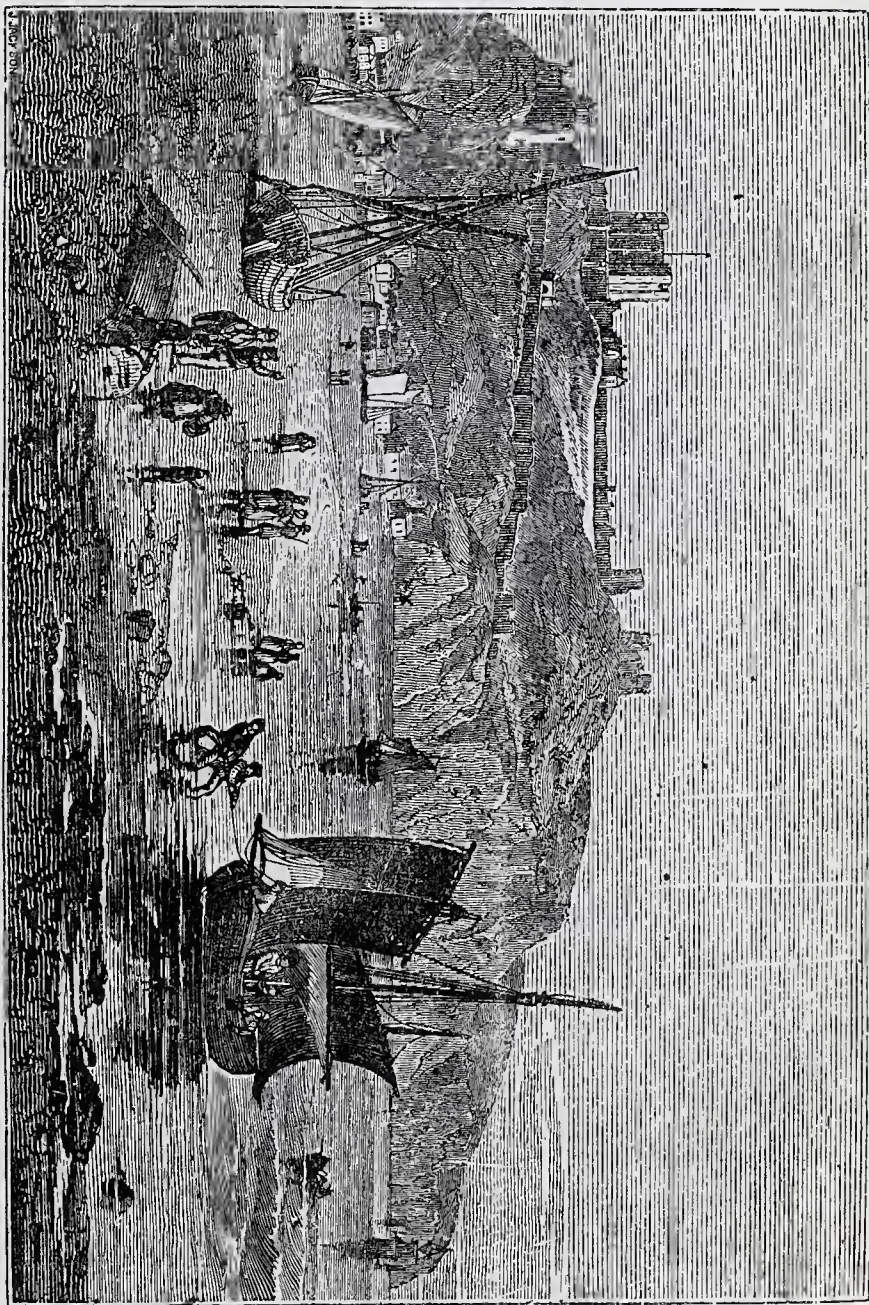
During the French revolution, it was considered important to secure and defend Dover castle as a military station. Fifty thousand pounds were voted for this purpose, and miners and other laborers were employed to excavate the rock for purposes of defence, and to cast up additional mounds and ramparts. Extensive barracks were excavated in the solid rock, by which accommodations were provided for a garrison of three or four thousand men. The subterraneous rooms and passages are shown to visitors, upon an order of the military commandant being obtained. There is an armory in the keep; and many ancient curiosities are to be seen here, among which is Queen Elizabeth's pocket-pistol, a beautiful piece of brass ordnance, presented to Elizabeth by the states of Holland, as a token of respect for the assistance she afforded them against Spain. It is twenty-four feet long, and bears a Dutch inscription, of which the following is a translation:—

“ O'er hill and dale I throw my ball;
Breaker, my name, of mound and wall.”

In Lyon's History of Dover, in two volumes quarto, or in a smaller work published by William Batcheller at Dover, may be found the detailed history of this castle, one remarkable event in which is, that, on the 21st of August, 1645, it was surprised and wrested from the king's garrison by a merchant of Dover, named Blake, with only ten of his townsmen, who kept possession of it for the parliament, and effectually resisted the king's troops. It is also worth notice, that, on the 7th of January, 1785, Dr. Jefferies and M. Blanchard embarked in a balloon from the castle heights, and, having crossed the channel in safety, descended in the forest of Guisnes, in France.

The lord warden of the cinque ports is constable of Dover castle, and has the execution of the king's writs within the cinque ports—a jurisdiction extending from Margate to Seaford, independently of the sheriffs of Kent and Sussex. The castle contains a prison used for debtors and smugglers, and the keeper has the feudal designation of “bodar,” under the lord warden. The courts of chancery, admiralty, &c., for the cinque ports, are held by the lord warden in St. James's church, at the foot of the castle-hill. The office of lord warden has been usually given to the first lord of the treasury, and is now held by the duke of Wellington, in consequence of his grace having been such first lord when the office became vacant.

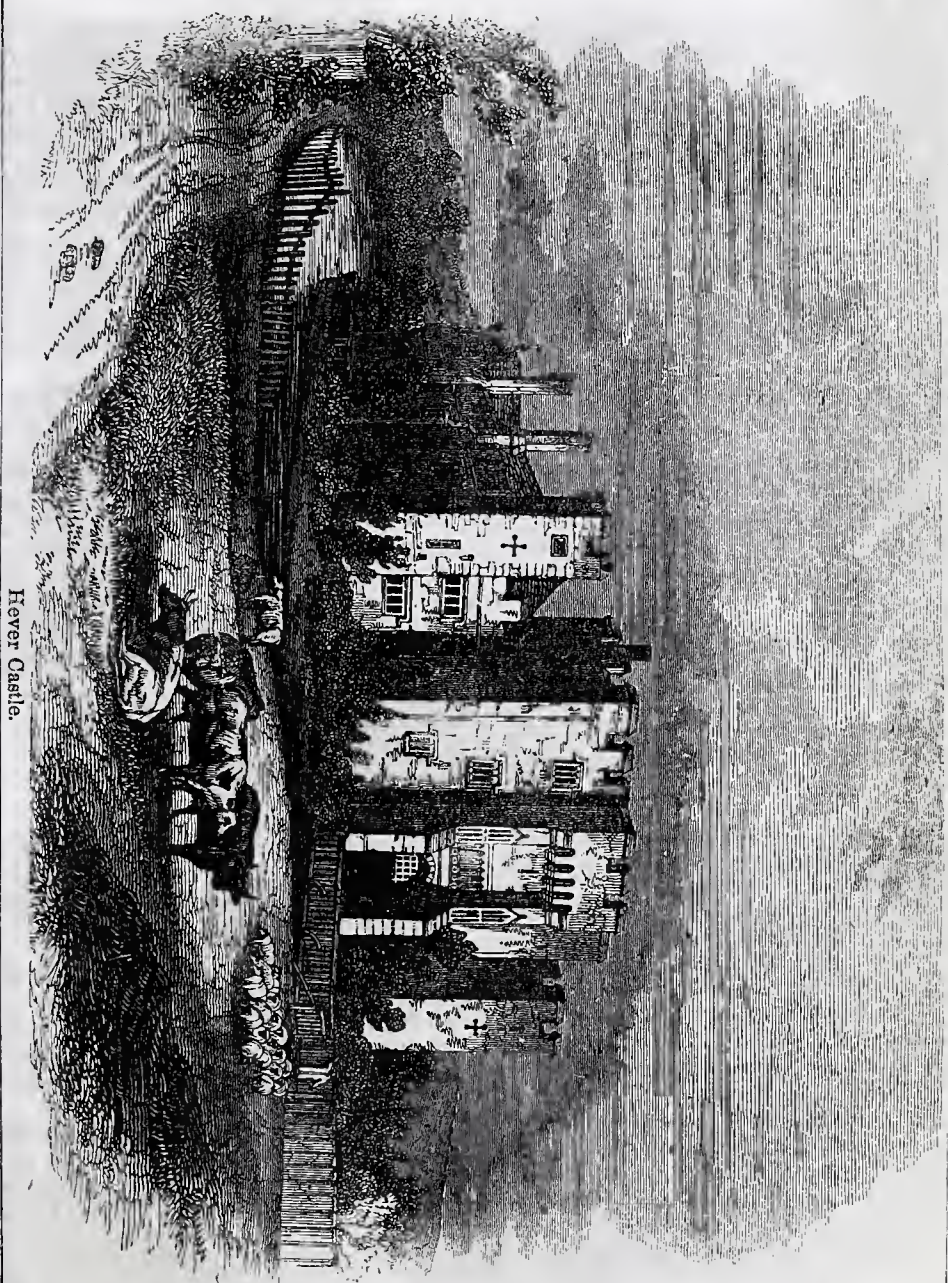
To the west of Dover, opposite the castle, is the celebrated Shakspeare cliff, described in the tragedy of King Lear. It is three hundred and fifty feet high, and almost perpendicular. The late Sir Walter Scott, when at Dover some years since, on his road to Paris, said to a gentleman who was speaking to him of this cliff: “Shakspeare was a lowland man, and I am a highland man; it is, therefore, natural that he should make much more of this chalk cliff than I can do, who live among the black mountains of Scotland.”



Dover Castle, from the Beach under Shalpspeare's Cliff.

Hever castle affords a good example of those residences which arose out of the disturbed state of society during the earlier periods of British history after the conquest, which suffered a partial dilapidation during the conflicts of the factions of York and Lancaster, and once more rose, in less martial forms, under the governments of Elizabeth and James. It was in the reign of Edward III. that William de Hevre obtained the king's license to "embattle his manor-house." It consists of "a castle," to which a quadrangular house is attached, the whole surrounded by a moat, beyond which several out-buildings, now used as barns, were arranged, to meet the wants of extra visitors, and the many festivals, religious and secular, of those "good old times." The elevation or front of the castle is composed of a central keep, pierced by a gate, crowned by strongly projecting machicolations, and flanked by two square towers. The face of the keep is decorated with some well-executed tracery of a much later date than the massive walls on which they repose. The gate is of vast strength, and seems to have been the point, of all others, on which the architect bestowed the utmost resources of his defensive skill. First, a deep-browed doorway is passed, defended by a strong porticulis and two thick oaken doors, barred, bolted, and studded with iron nobbs: immediately behind these are two guardrooms, in which a dozen men-at-arms might long dispute the passage of a breach. A broad avenue of solid masonry succeeds, and leads straight forward to a second porticulis, and these again to a third, occupying altogether the whole depth of the castle. Most of these works are in a good state of preservation; in two of the porticulises, the original doors, wickets, knockers, gratings, still remain. Over the external gate, immediately under the battlements, about a dozen machicolations project boldly forward, from which red-hot lead or other missiles might have been discharged on the heads of assailants. These gates lead the visitor into a spacious court-yard, formed on three sides by the house, which is built in the very early Tudor style, and on the fourth by the castle. The court is neatly paved with red bricks fancifully disposed. The fronts of the house are stuccoed, but were formerly richly embossed and painted with quaint patterns. The entrance to the apartments is usually made by the back-front, through what was once the great dining-hall, but which is now used as a kitchen. This is a most interesting place, very spacious, being ninety feet by thirty: it contains many fine specimens of old tables, safes, presses, &c., part of the original "Bullen" furniture. The walls appear formerly to have been covered with arms, and decorated with antlers and other memorials of the chase. From this apartment one is conducted to the grand staircase, a very tawdry affair, utterly out of character with the rest of the building, and furnished with some execrable pictures—one of them a portrait, apparently, of Cooke as Richard III., said to represent the cruel Henry VIII. himself. Leaving the staircase, several small anterooms are passed, panelled throughout with oak, and at length a door is reached, which is the threshold of Anne Boleyn's bedroom. This is really an interesting apartment, beautifully panelled, and contains the original family chairs, tables, muniment-box, and Anne's bed, a very heavy affair, dressed with yellow damask hangings. A door in one of the corners opens into a strong, dark cell, which was probably a strong cupboard for plate and valuables. In this apartment, several anterooms succeed, and the suite terminates in a grand gallery occupying the whole length of the building, in which the judicial meetings and social gatherings of the ancient family were held. It is about one hundred and fifty feet in length by twenty feet in width, with a vaulted roof, and panelled throughout with rudely-carved oak.

The interior of the castle is approached by a well-constructed winding stair in one of the towers, which opens into a number of little slit-windowed chambers, from which the archers could annoy their assailants. About midway the staircase opens into the narrow vestibule of the great stateroom. This is a lofty and nobly-proportioned hall, of nearly the whole width of the castle, panelled with richly-carved mahogany, which, together with the furniture, has recently undergone a most judicious restoration. The Gothic tracery over the fireplace is extremely beautiful, both in design and execution. It consists of two angels, each bearing two shields, showing the arms and alliances of—1. The Carey and Boleyn families; 2. Carey and Waldo; 3. Boleyn and Howard; 4. Henry VIII. and Boleyn. Upon the walls a number of ancient and modern family portraits are displayed, of little interest, save one of Anne Boleyn herself, and which is said to represent her in the dress in which she was executed. The countenance is of a placid commonplace character. This room has a fine music gallery, and a small withdrawing-room, now fitted up as a



Hever Castle.

library. The needle-worked chairs, screens, and settees, are most beautiful, and formed part of the original furniture.

In the church, to the left of the chancel, stands an altar-tomb to the memory of Sir Thomas Boleyn, first earl of Wiltshire. The top slab is inlaid with a remarkably fine brass, representing the earl in the full costume of a knight of the garter. In the neighboring church of Penshurst is also a brass monument for two of his sons, who died young.

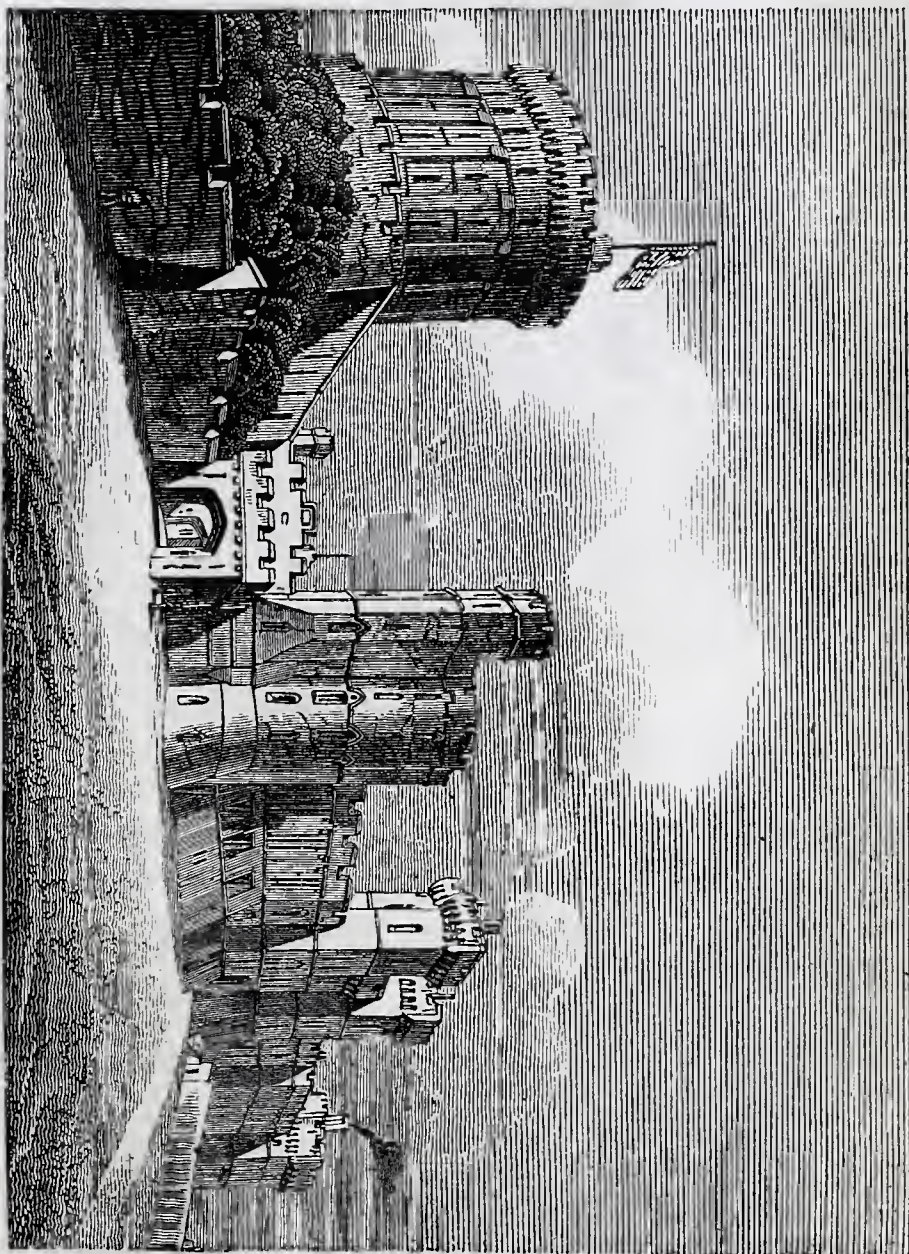
On a hill which is somewhat precipitous to the north, but is of gentle ascent in other directions, stands the castle of Windsor, situated in Berkshire, about twenty-two miles from London. "It enjoyeth," says Camden, "a most delightful prospect round about: for right in the front it overlooketh a vale, lying out far and wide, garnished with cornfields, flourishing with meadows, decked with groves on either side, and watered with the most mild and calm river Thames: behind it arise hills everywhere, neither rough nor over-high, attired as it were with woods, and even dedicated as it were by nature to hunting and game." The magnificent castle which crowns this eminence is associated with some of the most interesting events and persons in the history of England. It has witnessed all the pomp of chivalry, and its courts have rang with the feasts and tournaments of the Edwards and the Henrys. Kings were born here, and here they are buried; and after every change of fashion and opinions, it is still the proudest residence of the sovereign of England, as it was seven centuries ago.

There is scarcely a point within a few miles' distance, where the castle of Windsor is not seen to great advantage. To the traveller upon the Bath road it presents its bold northern front, which comprises the longest continuous range of its buildings. On the road to Windsor, by Datehet, the eastern front, with its four grand towers, appears of itself to exceed most other edifices in magnitude. To the great park the southern front is displayed; and when this part is viewed from the extremity of the fine avenue called the Long Walk, nothing can appear more stately. In every situation the Round tower rises above the other buildings, and arrests the eye by its surpassing dimensions. Burke has well characterized it as "the proud keep of Windsor." Sir John Denham, in his poem of Cooper's Hill (an eminence overlooking Runnemede), describes the majestic appearance of Windsor in the quaint and exaggerated tone of the poetry of his day:—

"Such seems thy gentle height, made only proud
To be the basis of that pompous load,
Than which a nobler weight no mountain bears,
But Atlas only which supports the spheres."

The visitor to Windsor, upon turning up the street (Castle street) which leads to the castle, will have the south front presented to him as it is represented in the engraving, p. 215. The improvements that have been made in this part within the last few years, are most striking. The road now leads boldly up to the castle; and the observer looks without interruption upon the rich woods of the adjacent parks. A very short time ago a number of contemptible buildings were scattered about the castle, and even the superb avenue, the Long Walk, was deprived of its natural object (the object, doubtless, for which it was planted)—that of forming a road to the principal entrance to the castle, by the avenue and the entrance being crossed by a large plastered house and offices called the Queen's lodge. All these excrescences have been judiciously removed.

The southern entrances to the castle are reserved for private use. The visitor will approach it through what is called the lower ward. He enters into this ward by a noble gateway, with two towers, built by Henry VIII. The first object which arrests his attention is the chapel of St. George, a building unrivalled in England or in Europe, as a perfect specimen of that richly ornamented Gothic architecture which prevailed in the latter end of the fifteenth and the beginning of the sixteenth century. This is represented in the engraving, p. 221. Immediately to the east of this fine chapel is an ecclesiastical building of later erection, called Wolsey's tombhouse, which is now used as the dormitory of the royal family. The buildings opposite St. George's chapel are the residences of the decayed military officers, called the poor knights of Windsor. The bold tower which terminates this row of buildings, as well as the opposite tower called the Winchester (from its being the residence of William of Wykeham, bishop of Winchester, the architect of the castle) are the



1. Windsor Castle—Round Tower and South Front.

best preserved, without much change, of the more ancient parts of the whole fabric. On the right, as he proceeds, the visiter looks down over a low battlemented wall, upon what was once the moat of the round tower. It appears to have been in part a garden, as long since as the time of James I. of Scotland, who was detained here for some time, and has celebrated this solace of his imprisonment in one of his poems. The tower itself rises in stern grandeur out of this depth. The mound upon which it is built is no doubt artificial. This immense tower has been considerably elevated within a few years, in common with many other parts of the castle.

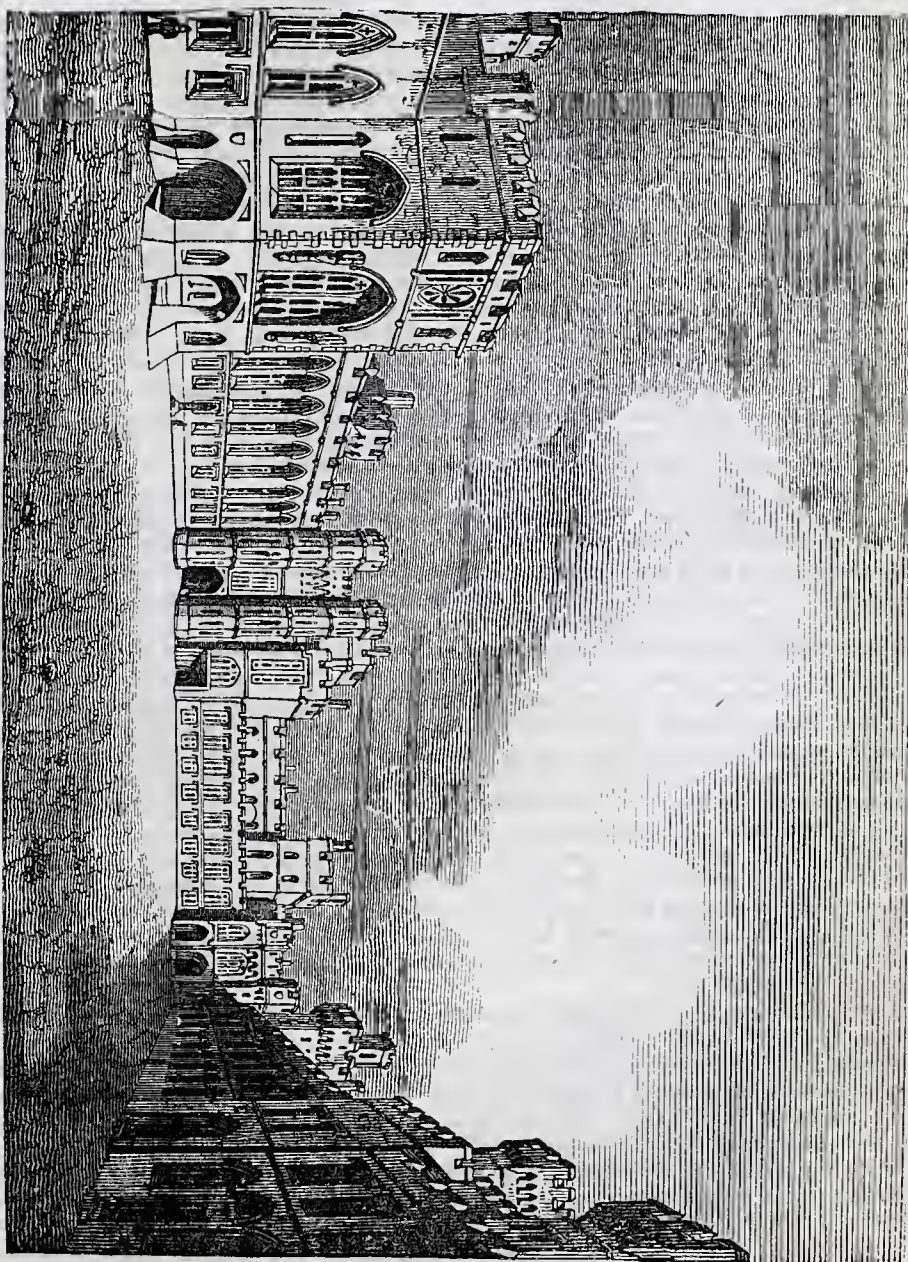
Proceeding through a gateway of two towers, whose low portal indicates its antiquity, and its employment for defence, the visiter finds himself within the magnificent quadrangle of the palace. On the north are the state apartments, in which is included the celebrated hall of St. George; on the east and south the private apartments of the king and his court. The state apartments are exhibited to strangers, as we shall more particularly mention. Nothing can be more imposing than the general effect of this quadrangle. Every part is now of a uniform character. We look in vain for the narrow grated windows and pierced battlements of the times of feudal strife, when convenience was sacrificed to security. These characteristics of a martial age were swept away by Charles II., who substituted the architectural style of the age of Louis XIV., than which nothing could have been in worse taste. In the recent alterations of the castle, the architect has most judiciously preserved the best characteristics of old English domestic architecture. The engraving, p. 217, may give some notion of the richness and grandeur of this quadrangle.

Returning a short distance, the entrance to the terrace presents itself to the visiter. After descending a flight of steps, the scene is totally changed. A prospect, unrivalled in extent and beauty, bursts upon the sight. Few persons can look upon this scene without emotion. The eye delightedly wanders over the various features of this remarkable landscape. It traces the Thames gliding tranquilly and brilliantly along, through green and shadowy banks—sometimes presenting a broad surface, and sometimes escaping from observation in its sudden and capricious windings; it ranges as far as the distant hills—it counts the numerous turrets and spires of the neighboring villages—or it reposes upon the antique grandeur of Eton college. Gray has beautifully described this magnificent prospect in well-known lines:—

—— ‘From the stately brow
Of Windsor’s heights th’ expanse below
Of grove, of lawn, of mead survey,
Whose turf, whose shade, whose flowers among
Wanders the hoary Thames along
His silver winding way.”

The north side of the terrace is constantly open to the public; and this is by far the finest part. To the eastern side, admittance is only granted on Saturdays and Sundays. At the northeast angle of the terrace, the northern front of the castle is exhibited, as shown in the engraving, p. 219.

The earliest history of Windsor castle, like that of many other ancient buildings, is involved in some obscurity. It is doubtful whether in the time of William the Conqueror and his son Rufus, it was used as a residence; but it was certainly then a military post. At Old Windsor, a village about a mile and a half from the present castle, there was a Saxon palæe, which was occasionally inhabited by the kings of England. Henry I. held his court there in 1105 and 1107; but having enlarged the adjacent castle with “many fair buildings,” he, according to the Saxon chronicle, kept the festival of Whitsuntide there in 1110. In the time of Stephen, the castle, according to Holingshed’s chronicle, was esteemed the second fortress in the kingdom. Henry II. and his son held two parliaments there. Upon the news of his brother Richard’s imprisonment in the Holy Land, John took possession of the castle; and after his accession to the throne, remained there, as a place of security, during his contests with the barons. Holingshed says, that the barons, having refused to obey the summons of the king to attend him in his own castle, he gave them the meeting at Runnemede, which ended in the signature of Magna Charta. The fortress sustained several changes of masters during the wars between the crown and the nobility, which broke out again in the reign of John, and of Henry III. Windsor castle was the favorite place of residence of Edward I. and II.; and here Edward III. was born. During the long reign of this monarch, the castle, according to its present magnificent plan, was commenced, and in great part completed. The history of the



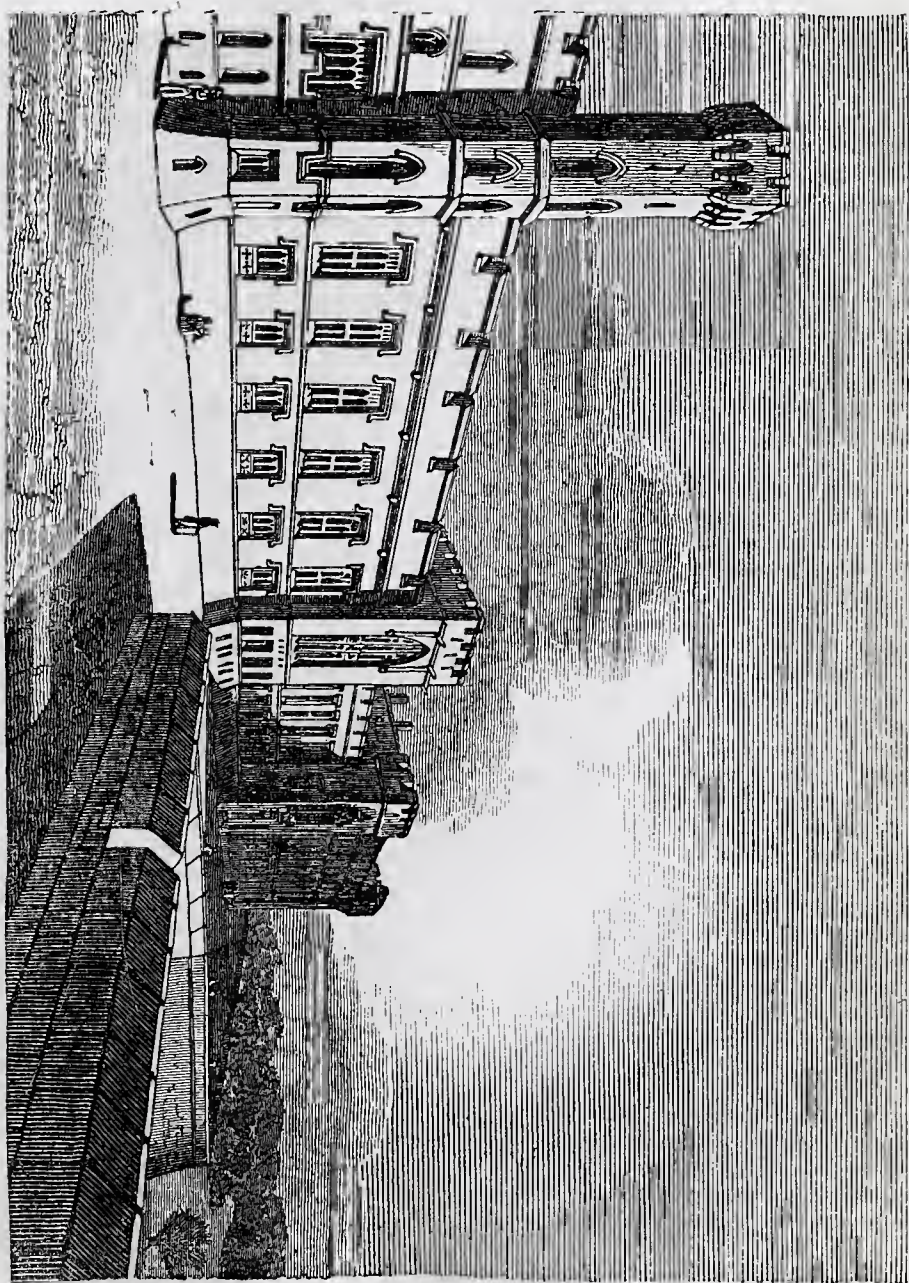
3. Windsor Castle—Great Quadrangle.

building furnishes, in many respects, a curious picture of the manners of the feudal ages.

At a period when no man's possessions in England were assured to him by law—when the internal peace of kingdoms was distracted by the pretensions of rival claimants to sovereignty—and when foreign wars were undertaken, not for the preservation of national safety, but at the arbitrary will of each warlike holder of a throne, personal valor was considered the highest merit; and the great were esteemed, not for their intellectual acquirements and their moral virtues, but for their gallantry in the tournament and their ferocity in the battle-field. Among the legends of the old chroniclers and romance-writers (and there was originally small difference in the two characters), the most favorite was the story of King Arthur and his knights of the Round Table. Froissart, the most amusing of chroniclers, says, that Windsor was the seat of the solemnities of the Round Table, in the sixth century; and later historians affirm that Edward III. in a solemn just (tournament), held at Windsor in the eighteenth year of his reign, revived the institution. Walsingham, the historian, states, that upon this occasion Edward built a round chamber, two hundred feet in diameter, for the deliberations and festivals of the companions in arms that he gathered about him. This strange house was itself called the Round Table. It is probable that it was a temporary structure; for, within a short time after, various commissions for appointing surveyors and impressing workmen were issued; and in 1356, William of Wykeham, then one of the king's chaplains, was appointed architect of the various buildings which Edward's taste for magnificent display had projected. In one year three hundred and sixty workmen were impressed, to be employed at the king's wages. Some of them having secretly left Windsor to engage in other employments for greater wages, writs were issued for their committal to prison, and to prohibit all persons from engaging them under severe penalties. Such were the modes in which the freedom of industry was violated, before the principles of commercial intercourse were fairly established. Had workmen been at liberty to engage with whom they pleased, there would have been no want of workmen for the completion of Windsor castle, or any other public or private undertaking. The capital to be applied to the payment of wages, and the workmen seeking the capital, would have been equally balanced. Impressments of various artificers appear to have gone on for the same object, till the year 1373; after which there are no records of more commissions being issued. It is probable, therefore, that this immense work was completed, as far as Edward III. had contemplated, in about seventeen years from its commencement. Before it had been begun, Edward had founded the Order of the Garter; and during its progress, and after its completion, the festivals of this institution were celebrated at Windsor with every pomp of regal state. Knights-strangers were several times invited from all parts of the world, with letters of safe-conduct to pass and repass the realm; and one of these festivals is particularly described by the chroniclers as exceeding all others in splendor, which was given in honor of John, king of France, who was then a prisoner at Windsor. John, who appears to have been a shrewd observer, is recorded to have said, that he never knew such royal shows and feastings without some after-reckoning for gold and silver.

Edward III. erected at Windsor a chapel dedicated to St. George, for the especial service of the Order of the Garter; but the present beautiful chapel is of later date. It was begun by Edward IV., who found it necessary to take down the original fabric, on account of its decayed state. The work was not completed till the beginning of the reign of Henry VIII. So beautiful a monument of architectural skill could not have been hurried forward as the ruder buildings of the castle were.

With the exception of occasional high pageantries on the festival of St. George, Windsor castle does not appear to have been the scene of many public solemnities after the reign of its chivalrous founder. Richard II., however, heard here the appeal of high treason brought by the duke of Lancaster against the duke of Norfolk. But it was often the favorite country residence of our kings; several of whom, particularly Henry VII., continued to make various additions and improvements. There is a curious poem by the earl of Surrey, who was confined in the castle for violating the canons of the church, by eating flesh in Lent, which presents the best picture we have of the kind of life which the accomplished gallants of the English court led in their country palaces, at a period when refinement had not taken away the relish for simple pleasures. He describes



4. Windsor Castle—North Front and Terrace.

"The large green courts where we were wont to hove"
 With eyes cast up into the maiden's tower ;"

and he goes on to contrast his painful imprisonment with his former happiness among "the stately seats," "the ladies bright," "the dances short," "the palm-play,"† "the gravel-ground,"‡ "the secret groves," and "the wild forest,"

"With cry of hounds, and merry blasts between,
 Where we did chase the fearful hart of force."

There must have been somewhat of tediousness in such a life, for courtiers possessing fewer intellectual resources than Lord Surrey, before letters were generally cultivated, and the manifold enjoyments of taste awakened ; and it is probable that the uninstructed high-born engaged in state intrigues, or stirred up useless wars, as much for the desire of excitement, as from less common motives.

The age of Elizabeth brought with it a love of letters, and here "the maiden-queen" occasionally retired from the cares of state, to dictate verses to her private secretary, or receive the flatteries of the accomplished Leicester. There is in the state-paper office an original manuscript translation of Horace's Art of Poetry, composed by Elizabeth under such circumstances. This queen built the north terrace, and a gallery, still called after her name, and retaining the peculiar style of the architecture of her day. We have seen some original orders for various repairs of the castle, which show how little private accommodation was regarded in these days of public pageantry. The maids of honor requested to have the boarded partitions of their chambers carried up to the ceilings, as the pages could otherwise gaze in upon them as they passed through the passages. There can be no doubt that an English palace of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries had much fewer comforts than the most unpretending dwelling of a tradesman of the present day. The furniture was scanty and cumbrous ; the linen was exceedingly scarce ; of porcelain there was none ; of glass scarcely any. The floors were covered with dirty rushes ; the doors had crazy fastenings. Henry VIII. carried a smith about with him, with padlock and chain, to fasten "the door of his highness' chamber ;" and the cost and quality of the various materials for a new gown which the same king presented to Anne Boleyn, are recorded with a minuteness and solemnity which the humblest servant-girl would now scorn to bestow upon her finest holiday suit.

Windsor castle was garrisoned by the parliament during the great civil war of Charles I. ; and it was the last prison of that unfortunate monarch. Upon the restoration, Charles II. bestowed upon the castle the doubtful honor of repairing it according to his foreign taste. We have no accurate records of what he destroyed ; but the probability is, that in remodelling the interior he swept away some of the most valuable memorials that existed of the style of living among his predecessors. St. George's Hall was covered with paintings by Verrio, as were the ceilings of all the other state apartments ; and truly nothing can be more disgusting than the nauseous flattery and bad taste of these productions. Most of the miserable improvements, as they were called, of this king, have been swept away from the exterior of the castle ; and, in many particulars, from the interior. St. George's Hall is once more a Gothic room, such as the "invincible knights of old" might have feasted in. Charles II., however, carried the terrace round the east and south fronts.

Queen Anne frequently resided at Windsor. In the reigns of the first and second Georges, it was neglected. George III. dwelt for many years in a white-washed house at the foot of his own palace ; till at length he determined to occupy the old castle. The apartments were little adapted to the notions of modern comfort, but the royal family continued to reside here till the death of the king. George IV. inhabited the castle as it was, for a few months in 1823 ; but in 1824, its general decay and want of accommodation were brought under the notice of parliament. Commissioners were appointed for superintending the alterations, and a large sum was voted for the first outlay. Mr. Wyattville (now Sir Jeffery) was appointed the architect ; and from that time till the present, the works have been carried on with unremitting diligence. Little now remains for the completion of the architect's noble design.

It does not fall within our object to give any minute description of the interior of Windsor castle. The apartments of the king and his court are as numerous as they are splendid. Round the east and south sides of the quadrangle runs a corridor,

* Loiter.

† Fives.

‡ For tournaments.



5. St. George's Chapel, Windsor—South Front.

forming a magnificent gallery above, and connecting the various parts of the immense range of offices below. The principal floor of this corridor is superbly furnished with pictures and statues. The chief apartments of the king and queen are in the south-eastern tower, and the eastern front. The dining, drawing, and music rooms are of extraordinary dimensions, forming that fine suite whose grand oriel windows look out upon the eastern terrace. They are connected, at the northeastern angle, with the state apartments, some of which, particularly St. George's Hall, are used on occasions of high festival.

The state apartments are exhibited daily to the public. Several of them have been completely remodelled, under the parliamentary commission for the repairs of the castle. The guard-room is now fitted up with great appropriateness: one of the most remarkable objects is a bust of Lord Nelson, having for its pedestal a portion of the mainmast of the *Victory*, his own ship, on the deck of which he gloriously fell. St. George's Hall, as we mentioned before, has been entirely purified from the productions of the false taste of the time of Charles II. An adjoining chapel has been added to the original hall; so that it is now an oblong room of vast length, with a range of tall pointed-arch windows looking upon the square. Its walls, panelled with dark oak, are hung with the portraits of successive sovereigns of the order of the Garter; and heraldic insignia of the ancient knights are borne on shields which surround the splendid room. Of the other new state apartments, the principal are the ball-room, glittering with burnished gold; and the Waterloo gallery, in which are hung the fine series of portraits painted by Sir Thomas Lawrence, of the princes, warriors, and statesmen, who were instrumental in forwarding that great victory.

The remaining state apartments are pretty much in the same condition as they exhibited during the reign of George III. They present an assemblage of such objects as are usually shown in palaces and noble mansions. Here are state beds, whose faded hangings have been carefully preserved from periods when silk and velvet were the exclusive possessions of the high-born; chairs of ebony, whose weight compelled the sitter to remain in the place of the seat, and tables of silver, fine to look upon, but worthless to use. Here are also the gaudy ceilings of Verrio, where Charles II. and his queen are humbly waited upon by Jupiter and Neptune; and the profligate who sold his country to Louis XIV. for a paltry bribe, and degraded the English court by every vice, is represented as the pacificator of Europe, and the restorer of religion. But there are better things to be seen than these in the state apartments. There are many pictures of great beauty, and several of transcendent excellence. Here is the celebrated "*Misers*" of Quentin Matsys, painted, as it is said, by a blacksmith of Antwerp, as a proof of his pretensions to aspire to marry the daughter of a painter of the same place. The blacksmith, however, was no mean artist in other lines; for he is said to have executed the iron tomb of Edward IV. in St. George's Chapel—a most remarkable specimen of elaborate ingenuity. Here is the "*Titian and Aretin*," one of the finest specimens of the great master of the Venetian school; the "*Death of Cleopatra*," and the "*Venus attired by the Graces*," of Guido; the "*Charles I. and the duke of Hamilton*," and "*the Family of Charles I.*," of Van-dyck; and "*the Silence*" of Annibal Caracci. These are paintings, with many others that we can not afford space to mention, which the best judges of art may come from the ends of the world to gaze upon. Those who are captivated by gaudy colors, applied to the representation of meretricious charms, may gaze upon "*the Beauties of the Court of Charles II.*"

The Round Tower is also exhibited to the public. There is nothing very remarkable in the apartments, except in the armory, where there are some curious specimens of the cumbrous firearms that were carried by the infantry in the early days of gunpowder warfare, when matches held the place of flints, and the charge of powder was borne in little wooden boxes, hung about the shoulders. Here are two suits of mail, said to have belonged to John, king of France, and David, king of Scotland, who were prisoners in this tower. The legend is appropriate, but not trustworthy.

The object at Windsor which is most deserving the lingering gaze of the stranger, and which loses none of its charms after the acquaintance of years, is St. George's Chapel. The exquisite proportions, and the rich yet solemn ornaments of the interior of this unrivalled edifice, leave an effect upon the mind which can not be described. The broad glare of day displays the admirable finishing of its various parts, as elaborate as the joinery work of a cabinet, and yet harmonizing in one massive and

simple whole. The calm twilight does not abate the splendor of this building, while it adds to its solemnity; for then

“The storied window, richly dight,”

catches the last rays of the setting sun: and as the cathedral chant steals over the senses, the genius of the place compels the coldest heart to be devout in a temple of such perfect beauty. The richly-decorated roof, supported on clustered columns, which spread on each side like the branches of a grove—the painted windows, representing in glowing colors some remarkable subjects of Christian history—the banners and escutcheons of the knights of the Garter, glittering in the choir above their carved stalls, within which are affixed the armorial bearings of each knight companion from the time of the founder, Edward III.; all these objects are full of interest, and powerfully seize upon the imagination. Though this building and its decorations are pre-eminently beautiful, it is perfectly of a devotional character; and if anything were wanting to carry the thoughts above the earth, the observer must feel the vanity of all greatness and all honor, save the true and imperishable glory of virtue, when he here treads upon the graves of Edward IV. and Henry VI., of Henry VIII. and Charles I., and remembers that, distinguished as these monarchs were for contrasts of good and evil fortune, the pride and the humility, the triumphs and the degradations, of the one and the other, are blended in the grave—

“Together meet the oppressor and the oppressed”—

and they are now judged, as they wanted or exhibited those Christian excellences which the humblest among us may attain. We shall not attempt any description of the various parts of this chapel.

There are not many monuments possessing merit as works of art in St. George's Chapel. The cenotaph of Princess Charlotte is a performance of some excellence in particular figures; but as a whole it is in vicious taste. Edward IV. is buried here, beneath the steel tomb of Quentin Matsys; his unhappy rival Henry VI. lies in the opposite aisle, under a plain marble stone. Henry VIII. and Charles I. are entombed under the choir, without any memorial. At the foot of the altar is a subterranean passage communicating with the tomb-house, in which is the cemetery of the present race of kings.

CHAPTER XV.

MANSIONS.

ENGLAND abounds in mansions of various kinds, the residences of her nobility and her moneyed aristocracy. Some of these reach a high degree of splendor, both in architecture and internal furnishings, not to speak of the delightful sylvan domains with which they are surrounded.

A certain class of English mansions may be described as engrafted on the priories and abbeys disused at the reformation. One of the finest of these is Alnwick castle, one of the seats of the duke of Northumberland.

Alnwick castle is interesting from its antiquity, the stirring events connected with its history, and its present state of complete restoration: it now exhibits one of the best specimens of the old baronial structures of Great Britain. The castle is placed on an eminence, which rises from the south side of the river Alne, opposite to the town of Alnwick. It is stated by Grose, that immediately before the Norman conquest, the castle and barony of Alnwick belonged to a baron of the name of Gilbert Tyson, who was slain with Harold at the fatal battle which gave William the crown of England. The possession passed into the hands of the Norman lords De Vescy, where it remained until the reign of Edward I., when, in 1297, Lord William de Vescy dying without legitimate issue, he, by the king's license, bequeathed the castle and barony to the bishop of Durham, who, twelve years afterward, sold them to the



Alnwick Castle, Northumberland.

Lord Henry de Percy, from whom they have come down, in regular succession, to the present noble occupants.

At whatever time a castle was first erected here, it was a place of great strength from a very early period. In the reign of William Rufus, Malcolm III., of Scotland, surnamed Cean-mohr, or Great-head, laid siege to Alnwick castle, and both he and his son fell in a conflict with a party of Anglo-Norman troops, who came to the assistance of the besieged. A story has long been repeated in the common histories connected with this siege and the death of Malcolm. It is stated that the garrison of the castle, despairing of succor, were on the point of surrendering to the Scotch, when a soldier rode forth completely armed, and, presenting the keys of the castle to the incautious king on the point of a spear, he suddenly pierced his eye and killed him, and by the fleetness of his horse escaped across the river, which was then swollen with rain. To this the fable adds, that the author of the successful stratagem obtained the name of Percy from "pierce eye," and that he became the founder of the house of Northumberland.

Alnwick castle proved disastrous to another Scotch king, William, surnamed the Lion, from his having been the first to adopt the lion into the royal arms of Scotland. The celebrated Richard Cœur de Lion, while young, having rebelled against his father, Henry II., William needlessly interfered in the fray, and engaged to help the rebel son against his sovereign and parent. In pursuance of his engagement, he entered Northumberland with a tumultuary army, and laid siege to Alnwick. A party of about four hundred English horse had sallied from Newcastle one morning in quest of adventure: they were enveloped in a mist and lost their way; but on the mist suddenly clearing up, they found themselves in the neighborhood of Alnwick, and not far from William, who, with about sixty horse, was scouring the country, the rest of his army being scattered in search of plunder. William at first mistook the English horse for a part of his own troops; but, being informed of his mistake, he gallantly exclaimed, "Now shall we see who are good knights!" and charged. But he was unhorsed, taken prisoner, with a number of his attendants, and carried to Henry II., to whom he was presented with his legs tied beneath his horse's belly. Henry was doubtless exasperated at William's interference in the quarrel between himself and his son; nor was the Scottish monarch released from captivity until, by a special treaty, he bound himself as the liegeman of Henry, and engaged to do homage for Scotland. This occurred in the year 1174. After Henry's death, Richard, previous to his departure for the holy land, annulled the degrading treaty on being paid ten thousand marks.

About twenty years ago, the then duke of Northumberland re-edified Alnwick castle at an expense, as stated, of two hundred thousand pounds. So solicitous was he to have the castle rebuilt after the precise model of the old one, that he preserved a number of stone warriors which formerly graced the battlements, and replaced them in their old positions; and such as were too feeble, from age and injuries, to occupy their stations he dismissed, but got new statues cut to supply their place, that nothing might be wanting. The castle now is, therefore, quite a model of what Alnwick was in the days of the border chivalry. The entrance is through a large gate, between two high round towers; this opens into a spacious court, surrounded on all sides by walls with high battlements. The part of the castle which contains the family residence stands on an artificial elevation in the centre of the inner court. The apartments are fitted up in a very splendid manner. The library, which is a room of sixty-four feet in length, has a very good selection of books. The chapel is elaborately decorated. The ceiling is an imitation of the ceiling of the chapel of King's college, Cambridge; the paintings on the walls are borrowed from those of the cathedral of Milan; and the genealogical table of the house of Northumberland is interwoven with them. The chapel is fifty feet in length, twenty-two in height and twenty-one in breadth. The apartments for the servants are in the towers. The keep or prison is partly above and partly under ground.

Lambeth palace, which stands on the right bank of the Thames, within half a mile of Westminster bridge, has been for many centuries the principal residence of the archbishops of Canterbury. The manor belonged originally to the see of Rochester, to which it had been granted, before the Norman conquest, by a sister of Edward the Confessor; and it was obtained in exchange for some other lands by Baldwin, archbishop of Canterbury, in the year 1189. There is reason to believe, however, that the archbishops had a house here for at least a century before this time. The

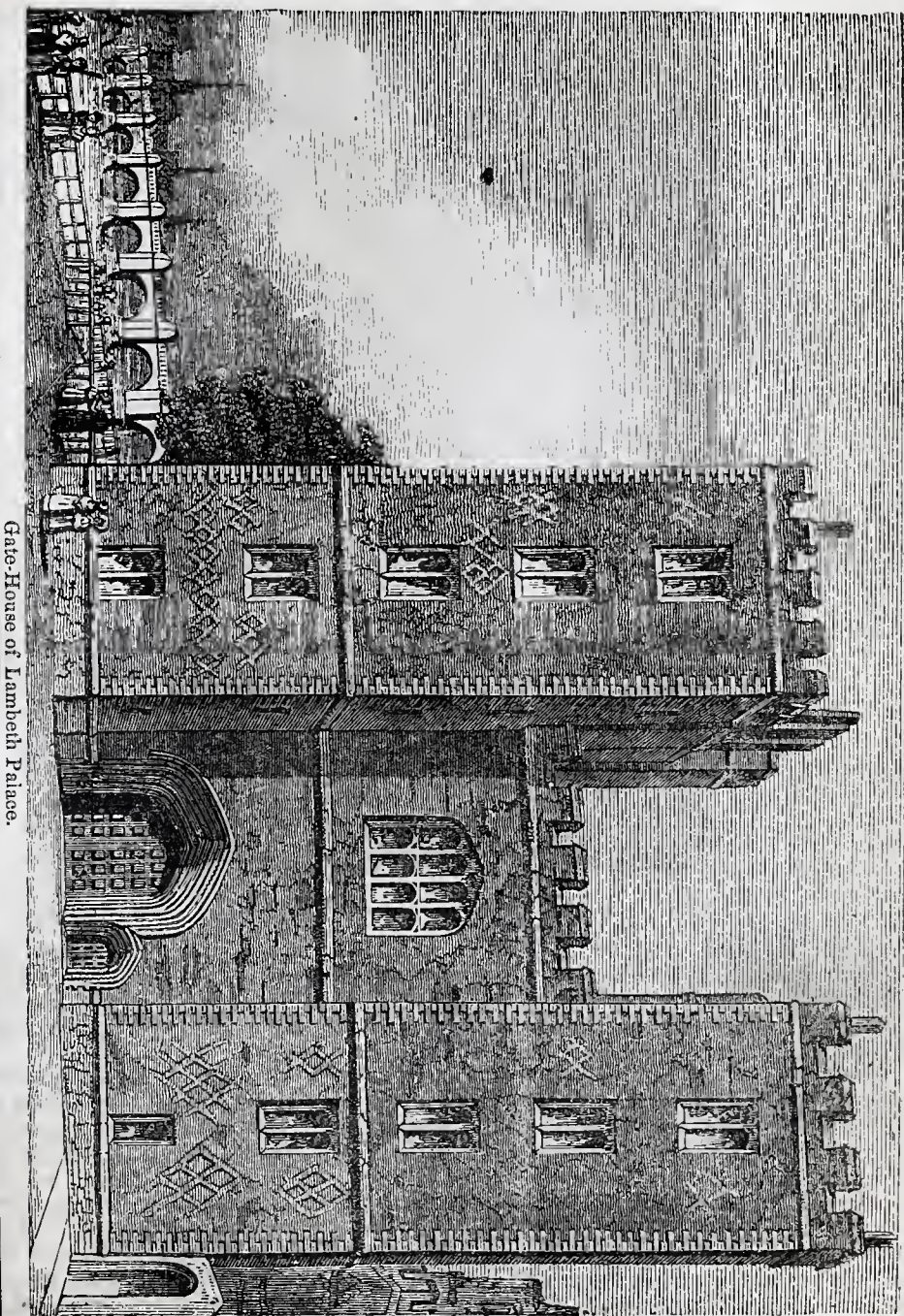
ancient possession of Lambeth by the see of Rochester is still commemorated by the payment to the latter, in two half-yearly sums, of five marks of silver, in consideration of the lodging, firewood, forage, and other accommodations, which the bishops of Rochester had been accustomed to receive here whenever they visited London. When the archbishops of Canterbury first obtained possession of the place, the buildings on it appear to have been old and mean. With the exception of the chapel, the whole of the present structure has certainly been erected since the middle of the thirteenth century.

The palace, as it now appears, is an irregular, but very extensive pile, exhibiting specimens of almost every style of architecture that has prevailed during the last seven hundred years. The oldest part of it, as we have just said, is the chapel, which is supposed to have been built toward the close of the twelfth century. It consists of two apartments, divided by a richly-ornamented screen, and measuring together seventy-two feet in length by twenty-five in breadth. The height of the chapel is thirty feet. Under it is another apartment of smaller dimensions, formed by a series of arches, supported by pillars, and now used as a cellar, though in ancient times it may not improbably have served as a place of worship. Another of the most remarkable portions of the edifice, the great hall, was originally erected by Archbishop Chicheley, in the beginning of the reign of Henry VI.; but after the palace had been sold by the parliament, in the time of the commonwealth, this magnificent apartment was pulled down. It was rebuilt, however, on the old site, and in close imitation of the former hall, after the restoration, by Archbishop Juxon, at an expense of ten thousand five hundred pounds. It stands on the right of the principal court-yard, and is built of fine red brick, the walls being supported by stone buttresses, and also coped with stone, and surmounted by large balls or orbs. The length of this noble room is ninety-three feet, its breadth thirty-eight, and its height fifty. The roof, which is of oak and elaborately carved, is particularly splendid and imposing. The gatehouse, which forms the principal entry to the palace, was erected by Cardinal Morton, about the year 1490, and is a very beautiful and magnificent structure. It consists of two lofty towers, from the summits of which is one of the finest views in the neighborhood of the metropolis. In front of this gate the ancient archiepiscopal *dole*, or alms, is still distributed every Sunday, Tuesday, and Thursday, to thirty poor parishioners of Lambeth. Ten are served each day, among whom are divided three stone of beef, ten pitchers of broth, thickened with oatmeal, five quartern loaves, and twenty pence in copper.

Among the other principal apartments are the library, containing a very extensive and valuable collection of books and manuscripts, founded by Archbishop Bancroft in 1610: and the long gallery, generally supposed to have been the work of Cardinal Pole, who possessed the see from the death of Archbishop Cranmer, in 1556, till 1558. This noble room contains many portraits, of which several are in the highest degree interesting as works of art, or on account of the individuals whom they represent.

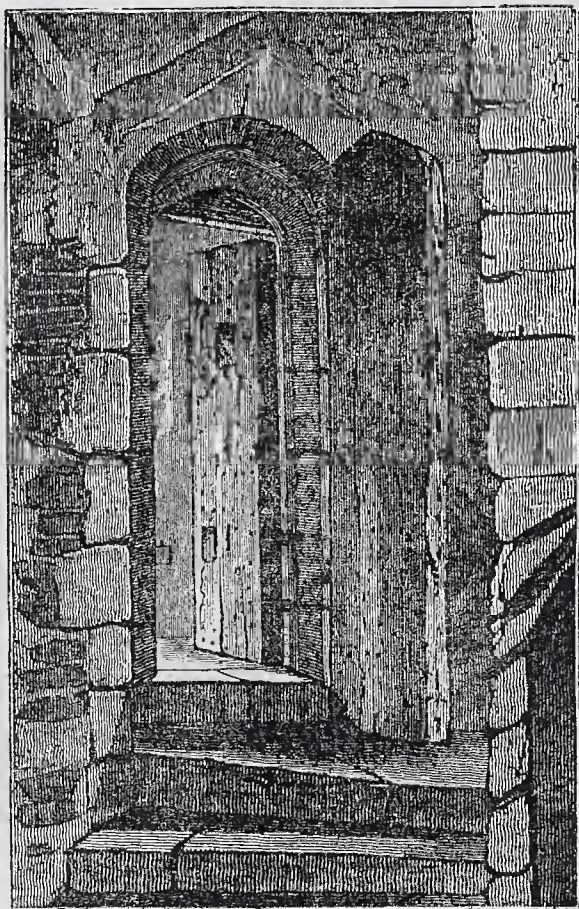
Besides these apartments, the palace contains many others well deserving of notice, but which we can not here attempt to describe. We may merely mention the guard room, an ancient and venerable chamber, fifty-six feet in length, and adorned by a splendid timber roof; the presence-chamber, also of considerable antiquity; the great dining-room, which contains a series of portraits of all the archbishops, from Laud to Cornwallis inclusive; the old and new drawing-rooms, the latter a fine room, measuring thirty-three feet by twenty-two, built by Archbishop Cornwallis; and the steward's parlor, probably built by Archbishop Cranmer.

One of the most interesting portions of Lambeth palace is the stone building called the Lollard's tower. It was erected by Archbishop Chicheley, in the early part of the fifteenth century, as a place of confinement for the unhappy heretics from whom it derives its name. Under the tower is an apartment of somewhat singular appearance, called the *postroom*, from a large post in the middle of it by which its flat roof is partly supported. The prison in which the poor Lollards were confined is at the top of the tower, and is reached by a very narrow winding staircase. Its single doorway, which is so narrow as only to admit one person at a time, is strongly barricaded by both an outer and an inner door of oak, each three inches and a half thick, and thickly studded with iron. The dimensions of the apartment within are twelve feet in length, by nine in width, and eight in height; and it is lighted by two windows, which are only twenty-eight inches high, by fourteen inches wide on the inside, and about half as high and half as wide on the outside. Both the walls and roof of the



Gate-House of Lambeth Palace.

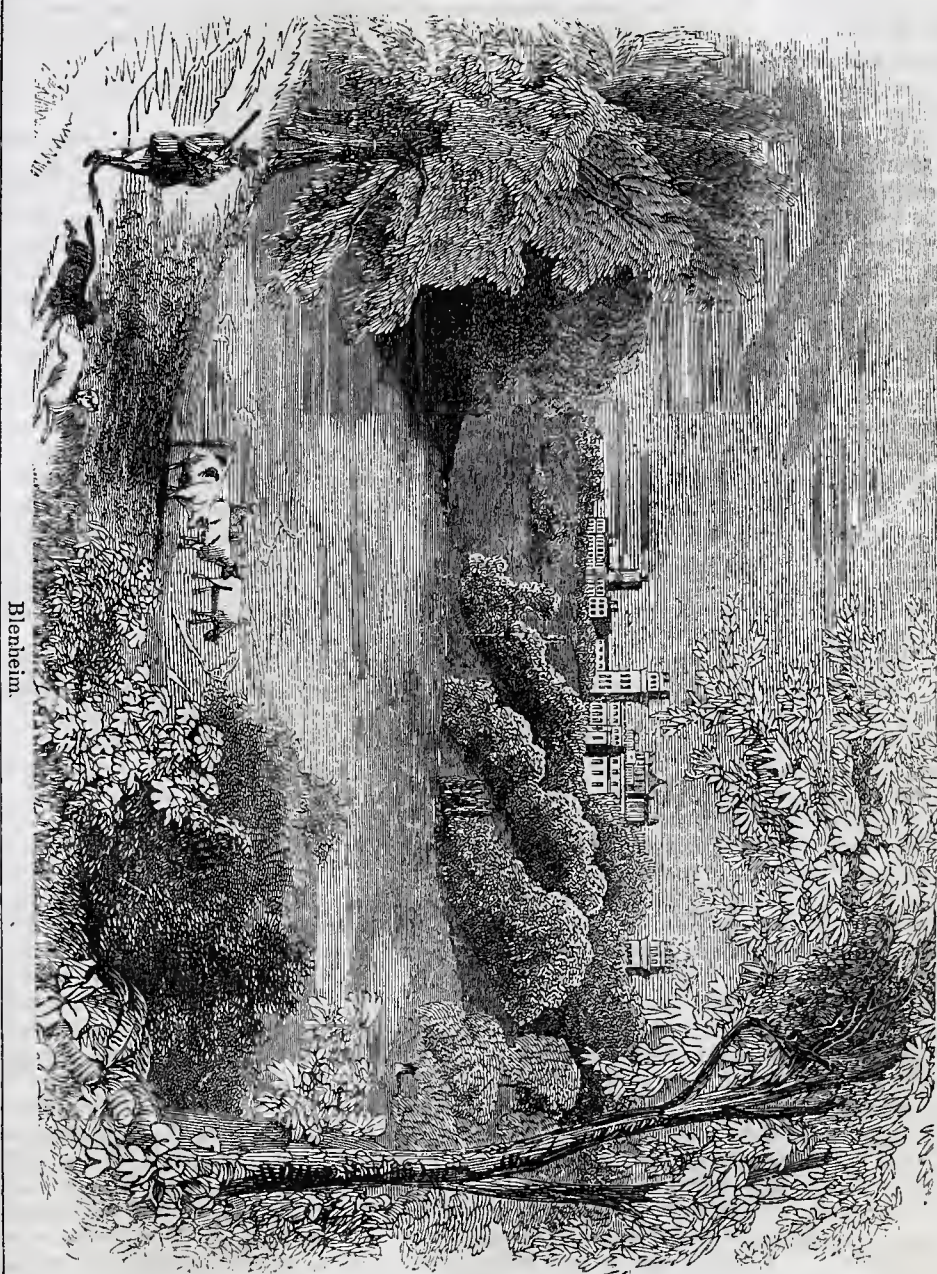
chamber are lined with oaken planks an inch and a half thick ; and eight large iron rings still remain fastened to the wood, the melancholy memorials of the barbarous tyranny whose victims formerly pined in this dismal prison-house. Many names and fragments of sentences are rudely cut out on various parts of the walls.



Doorway in Lollard's Tower.

The palace is surrounded by a park and gardens, very tastefully laid out, and occupying in all about eighteen acres. Among the ornaments of the grounds, are particularly deserving of notice two Marseilles fig-trees, of great size, and still bearing an abundance of delicious fruit, which tradition asserts to have been planted by Cardinal Pole.

Blenheim, the magnificent seat of the duke of Marlborough, is situated about eight miles from Oxford, and close to the town of Woodstock. The palace itself is placed in the midst of an extensive park, beautiful by nature, but moulded to perfection by art. The river Glyme runs through the park, and at a short distance before the principal or northern front of the palace, widens into a large sheet of water, having all the appearance of a lake, at the western extremity of which the river turns off to the south, and winding between the grassy elevations of the park, unites its waters with those of the Evenlode. The visiter enters the park at a beautiful gate, or triumphal arch, of the Corinthian order, on the side near Woodstock, which was erected in 1723, by Sarah, duchess of Marlborough, after the death of the duke, who did not live to see the work completed which was designed to honor his achievements. Proceeding toward the southeast, he shortly arrives at an elegant structure called the china gallery. The road now turns to the right, and approaches the palace, the higher parts of which he has seen throughout his walk through the trees. The building was erected from the designs of Sir John Vanbrugh, in the reign of



Blenheim

Anne, by whom, with the concurrence of parliament (which voted 500,000*l.* for its completion) it was conferred, together with the honor of Woodstock, on John, duke of Marlborough, as a testimony of royal favor and national gratitude for his services against the French and Bavarians.

The name is derived from a small village on the banks of the Danube, near which the famous victory was gained by the duke on the 2d of August, 1704; on the anniversary of which day, a flag or standard, painted with three fleurs-de-lis, is presented at Windsor to the reigning monarch, "as an acquittance for all manner of rents, suits, and services due to the crown."

Great as the parliamentary grant appears to be, much more was expended ere the palace and its adjacent embellishments were completed.

The architecture of the building excited much controversy at the time, and although the style has found supporters, many strictures were passed on it, the severity of which the refined taste of the present day can not but acknowledge to be just. But if it is wanting in architectural beauty, it certainly may lay claim to much originality; and if we could wish for a more elegant exterior, nothing can be more magnificent, and at the same time more convenient, than its interior. In describing so extensive a building as Blenheim, we can not do better than follow the guide through the rooms, in the order in which they are shown to visitors. We enter the large Corinthian portico at the north front (which from wing to wing is in length 348 feet) and shortly find ourselves in the hall, 67 feet in height. The ceiling is painted by Sir J. Thornhill, with a representation of Victory crowning the duke at Blenheim. The sides and galleries of this noble apartment are ornamented with several pictures and statues of great merit.

From the hall we proceed along a gallery to what is called the "bay-window room," hung with tapestry of great beauty, which, with the numerous pictures and mirrors, gives an air of great comfort to the apartment. The next room is the duke's study, full of pictures, and containing some fine bronzes. The east drawing-room, the grand cabinet, the little drawing-room, and the great drawing-room, are consecutively shown, all of which are hung with crimson cloth, and are crowded with pictures, which it would be folly to attempt to describe. Every apartment at Blenheim is adorned in a similar manner, and some of the finest specimens of the old masters are here to be met with. The dining-room is next to be visited, a lofty and commodious apartment, containing, among other pictures, several by Sir J. Reynolds, of the Marlborough family. From this room we enter a magnificent apartment called the saloon, the lower part of which is lined with marble, of which the large door-cases are likewise entirely composed. The ceiling and compartments of the walls are painted by La Guerre, the former being an allegorical picture complimentary to the duke; the latter, the principal nations of the world. Passing from the green drawing-room, hung with tapestry, we proceed to the state drawing-room, the finest of the whole for the richness of its furniture, its proportions, the splendor of its decorations, and the taste displayed in its arrangement. It contains some fine tapestry, representing the march to Bouchain and its siege. We next enter the state bedchamber, hung with blue damask, with which the furniture and bed are covered. The bedposts are beautifully carved and enriched with gold, their extremities being adorned with military trophies, and the top of the bed, rising into a dome, is surmounted by a ducal coronet. The whole is very elegant. The library, the next room to which the visitor is conducted, is of a more sober character, though larger than any other. It occupies the entire west front, and is 200 feet long by 32 wide in the centre. It is supported and adorned with solid marble columns, the basement being composed wholly of black marble, and contains the books of the Sunderland collection, consisting of 20,000 volumes; but the whole of the collection formed by Charles, earl of Sunderland, is not kept in this room, there being another portion in a part of the palace not shown to strangers. At the upper end is a fine statue in white marble, by Rysbrach, of Queen Anne; and other statues, busts, and paintings, adorn the walls.

From the library we proceed along a piazza to the chapel, situated in the western wing, the most striking ornament of which is a monument to the memory of John, duke of Marlborough, and his duchess, by Rysbrach.

We have now run over the rooms of the palace which strangers are permitted to view, and we once more find ourselves before the north front of the building. We can now visit the theatre and the Titian room adjoining. The former is very ele-

gant, and contains some beautiful scenery. The latter encloses the celebrated series of pictures of the "Loves of the Gods," well known by the many engravings which have been made after them. There is, however, little more than color to recommend them, for this artist, so pre-eminent in all that related to the proper management of his palette, appears here to have had little feeling for beauty either of expression or form.

The china gallery, which we pass in coming to the house, is a small building, containing a fine collection of porcelain, delf, and Japan manufactures, formed by Mr. Spalding, and presented by him as an appendant to Blenheim, on condition that it should be annexed as an heirloom to the Marlborough family, unless the duke should choose to give it to some university, museum, or corporation. The effect of the glittering contents of this building, in which all colors and forms are exhibited, is surpassingly splendid.

We have as yet said little of the park, and we feel that where description can convey no idea of the beauties which only the eye can comprehend, the less that is said the better. The labors of Brown have been followed up by the taste of the succeeding proprietors of the domain, and the result at the present time is the very perfection of landscape gardening. The same praise may be awarded to the beauty with which the gardens are laid out.

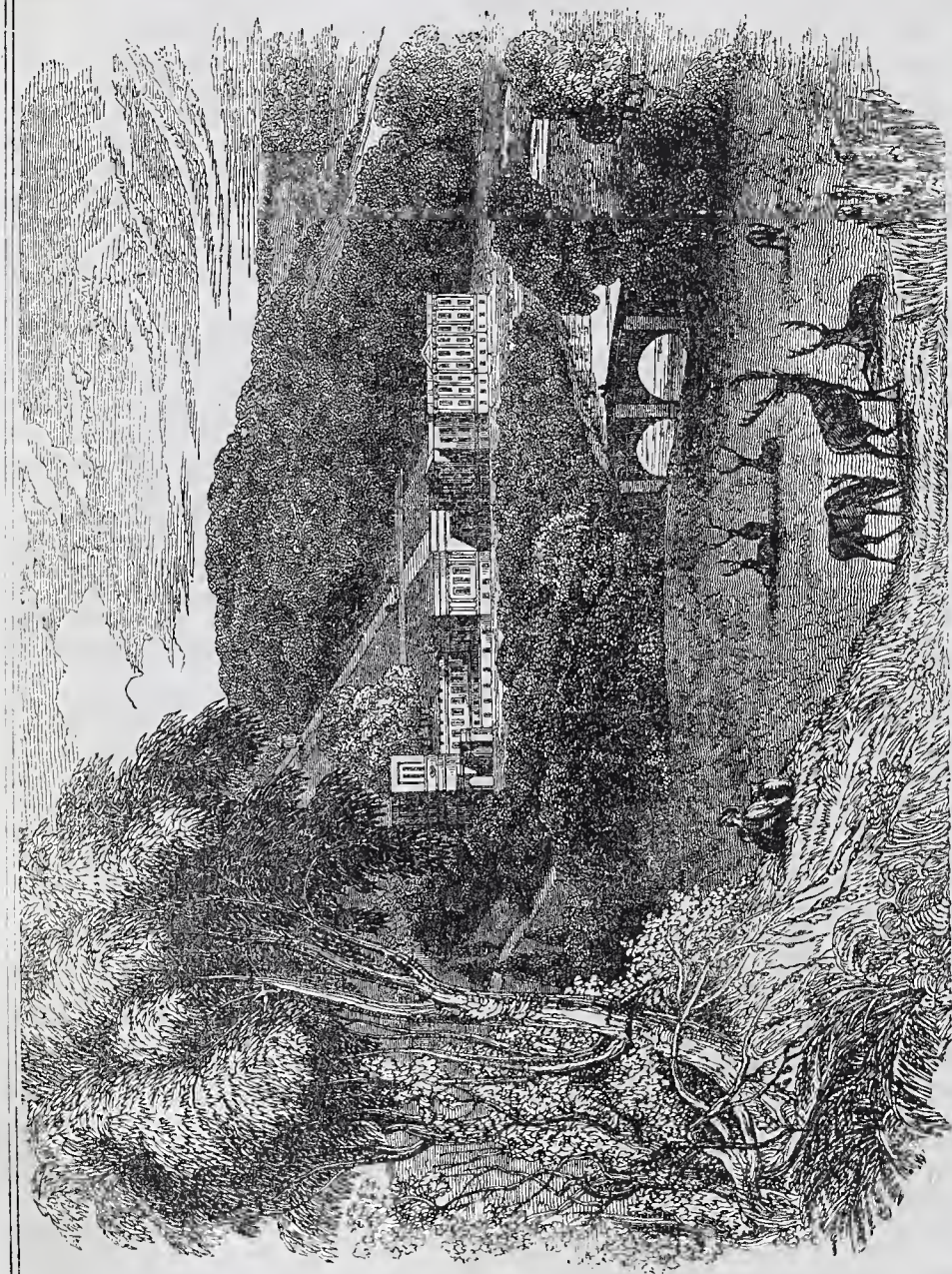
We can not, however, quit Blenheim without directing attention to the beautiful prospect which the view from the south front of the mansion affords. The eye, stretching over the beautiful lawn and pleasure grounds, commands a distant view of the village of Bladon rising above the trees of the "lesser park," with the bright prospect of the surrounding country, and the indistinct outlines of the Chiltern hills bounding the verge of the horizon. No view, composed as it is of so happy a union of nature and art, can be imagined more beautiful.

Chatsworth, the ancient residence of the Cavendish family, and the princely seat of the present duke of Devonshire (whose elegant taste has added so much to the already renowned beauties of the spot), is situated in the vicinity of the Peak hills of Derbyshire. The usual entrance to the park, by which the house is approached, is near the little village of Edensor, but the unassuming appearance of the gate and the porter's lodge would not lead any one to imagine the magnificence which reigns within.

The road, however, at some distance from the entrance, gains an elevation from which the palace may be seen surrounded by the most beautiful trees and undulating ground, forming a prospect where nature and art seem to have vied with each other to produce the most happy effect. The woodland scenery of the park is graced by the refreshing waters of the river Derwent, which passes through it, and over which an elegant stone bridge is thrown, built by Payne, from a design said to be by Michael Angelo. Behind the house, which forms the middle distance in the picture, rises a gently sloping hill shadowed by broad masses of thick foliage, and beyond are seen the romantic hills which skirt the peak of Derbyshire.

Chatsworth was among the domains originally given by William the Conqueror to one of his attendants named William Peveril, but it afterward passed into the noble family of Cavendish, and has ever been a favorite residence of the earls and dukes of Devonshire. The plan of the present building was the production of William Talman, a native of Wiltshire, who was comptroller of the works in the reign of William III.; and the greater portion was built under his superintendence, but the whole extent of the original design has only been carried out by the present duke and his predecessor, who have not only completed the intentions of the architect, but have added considerably to the original plans, and improved the appearance of the whole. Talman was also the architect of Denham house, Gloucestershire, and old Thoresby house, in Nottinghamshire.

Chatsworth is composed of four nearly equal sides, with an open quadrangular court within, forming the portion first completed, but to this have since been added extensive wings and additional buildings. The sides of the court have open balconies, guarded by stone balustrades, which are divided into different sections by twenty-two intervening parts forming pedestals, on which are placed busts, carved in stone, representing some of the most distinguished men of the reign of Queen Anne. The middle of the court is occupied by a marble statue of Arion seated on the back of a dolphin, round which the clear water of a fountain is continually playing, falling into a capacious basin of Derbyshire marble below. This figure is some-



View of Chatsworth.

times called Orpheus, but it seems more probable, as suggested by Mr. Rhodes, that it was intended to represent Arion the renowned musician and poet of Lesbos, who, returning from Italy, where he had become rich by the exercise of his talents, met with that fabled adventure, without which his name and excellence in music would probably have been little known to posterity. It is related that the sailors, in order to possess themselves of his riches, had determined upon his death, and with great politeness informed him of his approaching fate. Not at all dismayed by the intelligence, he merely requested to be allowed to sing his own elegy to the sounds of his lyre previous to the sentence being carried into effect. This moderate request being acceded to, he struck a few chords, then broke into a strain of melody so enchanting as to entrance the sailors and captivate the fishes. Taking advantage of this state of things, he jumped into the sea, lyre in hand, and being caught on the back of an enraptured dolphin, was safely borne to his own country, where he arrived, with a long train of piscivorous animals at his heels, some time before the vessel, the crew of which, we need scarcely say, were as much astonished as disconcerted at his appearance.

There are also several other sculptures in the court, besides the ornamental carvings of the building, the best of which however (on the exterior) are those on the principal front of the house, which presents a very imposing appearance.

But however faultless a building may be considered, there are never wanting critics who pretend to discover imperfections, which only exist in their own minds. Mr. Rhodes, in his elegant delineation of "Peak Scenery," mentions that he "once heard an eminent artist remark, that the principal fault in Chatsworth was an apparent want of apartments suited for the accommodation of the domestics of so princely a mansion. It is a palace to the eye, where every part seems alike fitted for the noble owner and his guests only, and on beholding it the spectator is naturally led to inquire where the servants of such an establishment are to abide." We doubt if such reflections would be made by any but a professional person, and we should imagine that the art to conceal or disguise the residences of the domestics, or the places where domestic occupations are carried on, is of paramount importance in the construction of a building in which every part should claim the admiration of the spectator, and, where successfully exhibited, should claim the encomium rather than the blame of all who aspire to architectural taste.

The rooms of this palace are generally spacious and lofty, some of them hung with tapestry, and all elegantly furnished; but in the decorations of those parts of the mansion which have been left in their original state, the chaster taste of the present day has to lament the employment of artists, who, although fashionable in their time, are now justly condemned for the flutter and gaudiness of their productions. We allude to the pictures by Verrio and Laguerre (whom he employed as his assistant) which adorn, or rather disfigure the staircases, the ceilings, and walls of so many apartments at Chatsworth. Even the chapel is not free from the meretricious productions of this school. It is composed almost entirely of cedar-wood, the fragrance of which is immediately perceived on entering, and abounds in carved and sculptured ornaments which are appropriate to the building; but it is also crowded with paintings which break the chastity of its appearance. When paintings are introduced into places of this character, they should reflect the dignity and purity of the religion the temple of which they are to grace; here, however, the productions of Verrio's pencil distract the attention and lead the thoughts from the contemplation of religion to the follies of the world; for although the chapel at Chatsworth boasts the masterpiece of Verrio, the glitter of art so supersedes the sentiment of nature, that little of the latter finds its way to the mind. That great satirist of the vices of mankind, who censured all—but himself—for the follies they were guilty of, has not let the productions of these painters escape his lash:—

"And now the chapel's silver bells you hear,
That summon you to all the pride of prayer;
Light quirks of music, broken and uneven,
Make the soul dance upon a jig to heaven.
On painted ceilings you devoutly stare,
Where sprawl the saints of Verrio and Laguerre."

But the looseness of design and profusion of ornament which are the blemish of these pictures become objects of the highest admiration when displayed under the chisel of the carver in wood or stone. The sober color of the material takes away

from the gaudiness of appearance, and the knowledge of the difficulties which have been encountered in the production of so unexpected an effect from its solid and unyielding nature, increases the pleasure with which we witness the result of the artist's labors. At Chatsworth are some of the finest specimens of the carving of Grinlin Gibbons and Samuel Watson, two artists nearly equal in talent, if not in fame. Some of the most beautiful specimens of this art at Chatsworth are by the former artist, but the greater portion is by Watson, whose receipts for the sums paid for the work are still preserved.

Nothing can be imagined more beautiful than the carvings which decorate the walls of this palace. There is, particularly, a net containing dead game, by Gibbons, which exhibits the perfection of the art; while fruit and flowers, carved with a delicacy which rivals the productions of nature herself, are flung around in the most graceful manner; here hanging in elegant festoons from the ceiling, there dropping down the walls and sides of the doors, as though Pomona and Flora had mingled their treasures, and made Chatsworth their storehouse.

The pictures in the possession of the duke of Devonshire at Chatsworth are not very numerous, but there is a long gallery near the entrance-hall lined with several hundreds of fine drawings and sketches by the old masters; and there are several fine statues, principally collected by the present duke—among them the celebrated figure of the mother of Napoleon, by Canova; and the exquisite bust of Petrarch's Laura, by the same sculptor, both of which are in the library. This magnificent room is worthy the valuable collection of books which it contains; and besides the statues and pictures with which it is adorned, it contains two porphyry vases, received from Russia, which, on account of their size and beauty, attract the attention of every visitor.

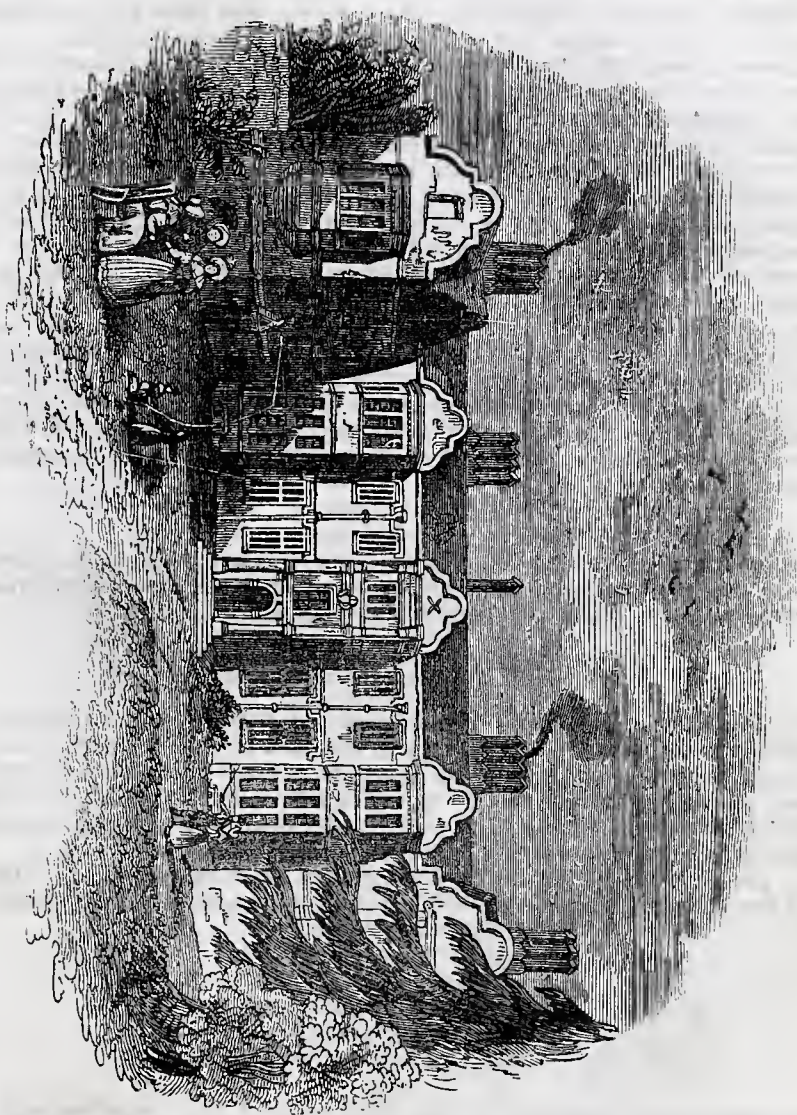
The fine park which surrounds the house, and the gardens teeming with everything rare and beautiful which the floriculturist could desire, have, under the fostering care of the duke of Devonshire, whose taste on such matters is appreciated by all engaged in similar pursuits, become among the most celebrated in the kingdom for the beauty and exquisite order of their arrangements.

Mr. Rhodes, in speaking of the beautiful views which abound at Chatsworth, mentions one with which he was particularly pleased, in the following manner: "A little to the left was the building, backed with broad and ample foliage; cattle reposing in groups on the bank of the river, or cooling themselves in the stream, adorned the foreground; and the middle and remote distances, which were ornamented with a palace, a bridge, and towers and temples, disclosed altogether a scene as rich and as lovely as the fancy of Claude Lorraine ever portrayed when under the influence of his happiest inspirations. Yet the foreground had more of Berghem than of Claude in it: the respective features which constitute the peculiar charms of excellence of these great masters were most harmoniously combined; every part was in character, and the whole was faithful to nature."

Chatsworth was for some time the residence or prison of Mary Queen of Scots, a circumstance which has caused her name to be given to a suite of apartments in the building, which, however, we need scarcely say, she never could have occupied.

Hurley house is situated on one of the most picturesque windings of the Thames, and but a few hundred yards from the river, the grounds extending to the banks. It is about five miles from Maidenhead, and about four from Henley-on-Thames, not far from the Oxford road. The view from the hills above the village of Hurley is very fine; and the village itself is pleasantly situated in a valley, sheltered on both sides of the river by gently-descending and well-wooded hills. It has an ancient and retired look. The houses are old and built partly of timber, with deep porches and seats, covered with mosses and vines, contrasting somewhat singularly with the smart inn and new toll-house at the entrance of the village. The church, which stands near the manor-house, is old and plain.

The site of Hurley house was a Benedictine monastery, founded in the reign of William the Conqueror, and dedicated to the Virgin; hence the house, which was built about the beginning of the seventeenth century, was termed Lady Place. The manor came into possession of the Lovelace family in the sixteenth century, and the house was built by Sir Richard Lovelace, who was "knighted in the wars," as his epitaph declared, and who was reputed to have acquired a large sum of money on a sea expedition with Sir Francis Drake. His son was made Baron Lovelace, of Hurley.



Back View of Lady Place, Harley.

The engraving represents the garden front of the house. The hall, which was of large size and lofty dimensions, had two entrances, one from the garden, and one from the grounds leading to the Thames. The ceiling was covered with plaster mouldings of elegant flowing scroll-work, intermixed with fruit and flowers; and the walls were also ornamented with groups of musical instruments, books, &c., enclosed in borders, all of plaster. On one side of this spacious apartment was a staircase leading to a balcony running round it, from which were doors to rooms on the second story.

The rooms were panelled, as was also the hall or saloon, the panels being painted with landscapes, or else carved in arches and lozenges. The landscapes were about fifty in number, painted in a broad and free manner; they have been attributed to Salvator Rosa, but we believe they were the work of Antonio Tempesta.

The lower rooms, with their large bay windows and painted and carved panelings, must have been, especially when filled with the massive, antique furniture of the period, extremely rich, light, and imposing. But the upper rooms, which were not intended for show, presented a great contrast; they exhibited little either of elegance or comfort. The gutters from the roof ran through them, by which the external air was freely admitted at all seasons, as well as a copious share of the rain.

In the reign of James II., John Lord Lovelace "kept house" at Lady Place with a profuse hospitality that afterward ate like a canker into his fortune. But it was under cover of this hospitality that the meetings of the noblemen of England were held, which resulted in the revolution of 1688. The vault under the hall of the house was the burial-vault of the monastery which formerly occupied the site; an inscription on the floor records that "three bodies in Benedictine habits were found under this pavement." The ceiling of the vault is about six feet and a half high. In the engraving on the next page the recess is exhibited, where, it is believed, on local tradition, that various papers respecting the calling in of the prince of Orange, &c., were signed. The following inscription records the chief facts connected with the history of the vault:—

"DUST AND ASHES,

Mortality and Vicissitude to all.

"Be it remember'd, that the Monastery of Lady Place (of which this Vault was the *Burial Cavern*) was founded at the time of the great Norman *Revolution*; by which *Revolution* the whole state of England was changed.

"Hi motus animorum; atque hæc certamina tanta,
Pulveris exigui jactu compressa quiescunt.

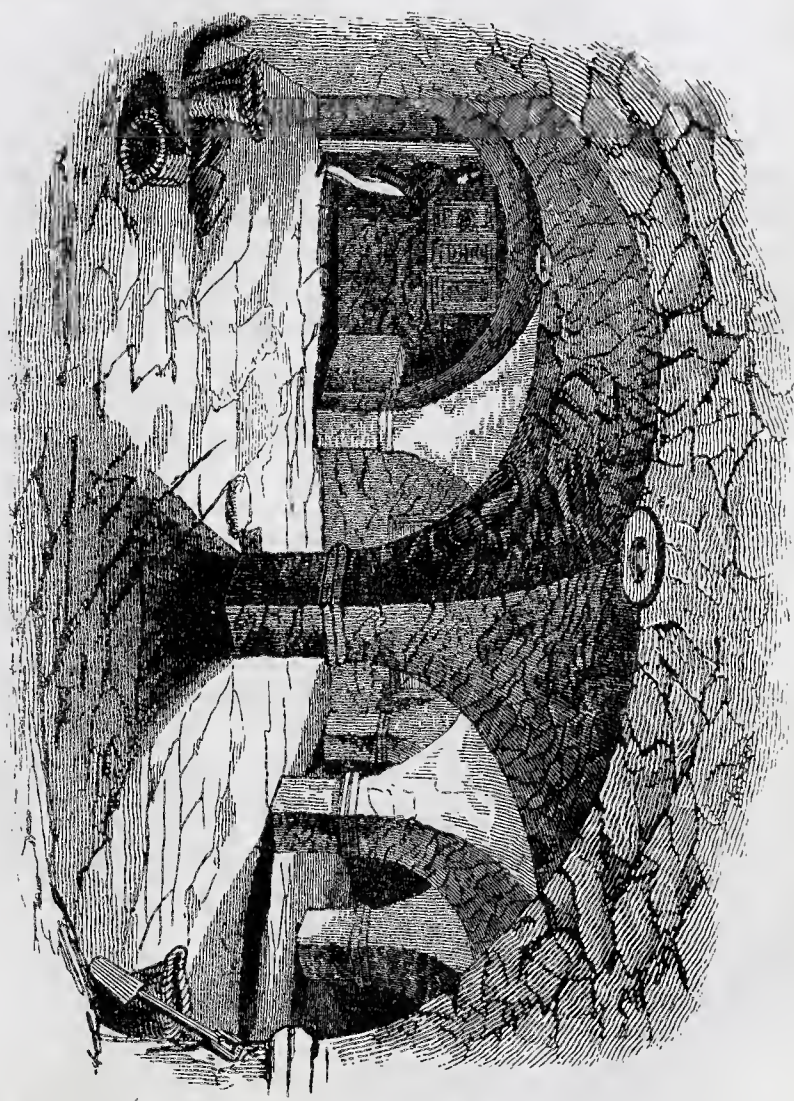
"Be it also remember'd, that in this place Six Hundred Years afterwards, the *Revolution* of 1688 was begun. This House was then in the Possession of the Family of Lord Lovelace; by whom private meetings of the Nobility were Assembled in the Vault; and it is said that several consultations for calling in the prince of Orange were held in this recess. On which account this Vault was Visited by that powerful Prince after he had ascended the Throne.

"Be it also remember'd that on the 29th of May, 1780, this Vault was Visited by General Paoli, Commander of the Corsicans in the *Revolution* of that Island.

"Be it remember'd
that this Place was Visited by
their Majesties KING GEORGE
the third & QUEEN
CHARLOTTE, on monday
the 14th of November
1785."

Lord Lovelace was rewarded by King William with the post of captain of the band of gentlemen pensioners. He fitted up Lady Place with great splendor, and lived in a style which involved him so much in debt, that the greater portion of his estate was sold under a decree of the court of chancery. The house then passed through various hands. In 1837, its dilapidation condemned it to be pulled down. On the occasion of the visit when the drawings were made, the vault was in a state of decay. It was originally very dry, but the rain had penetrated through the ceiling, and seemed to be doing considerable mischief.

The superb mansion of Castle Howard, stands in a noble park about six miles west of Malton in Yorkshire. The exterior of the edifice, as a whole, is grand, and

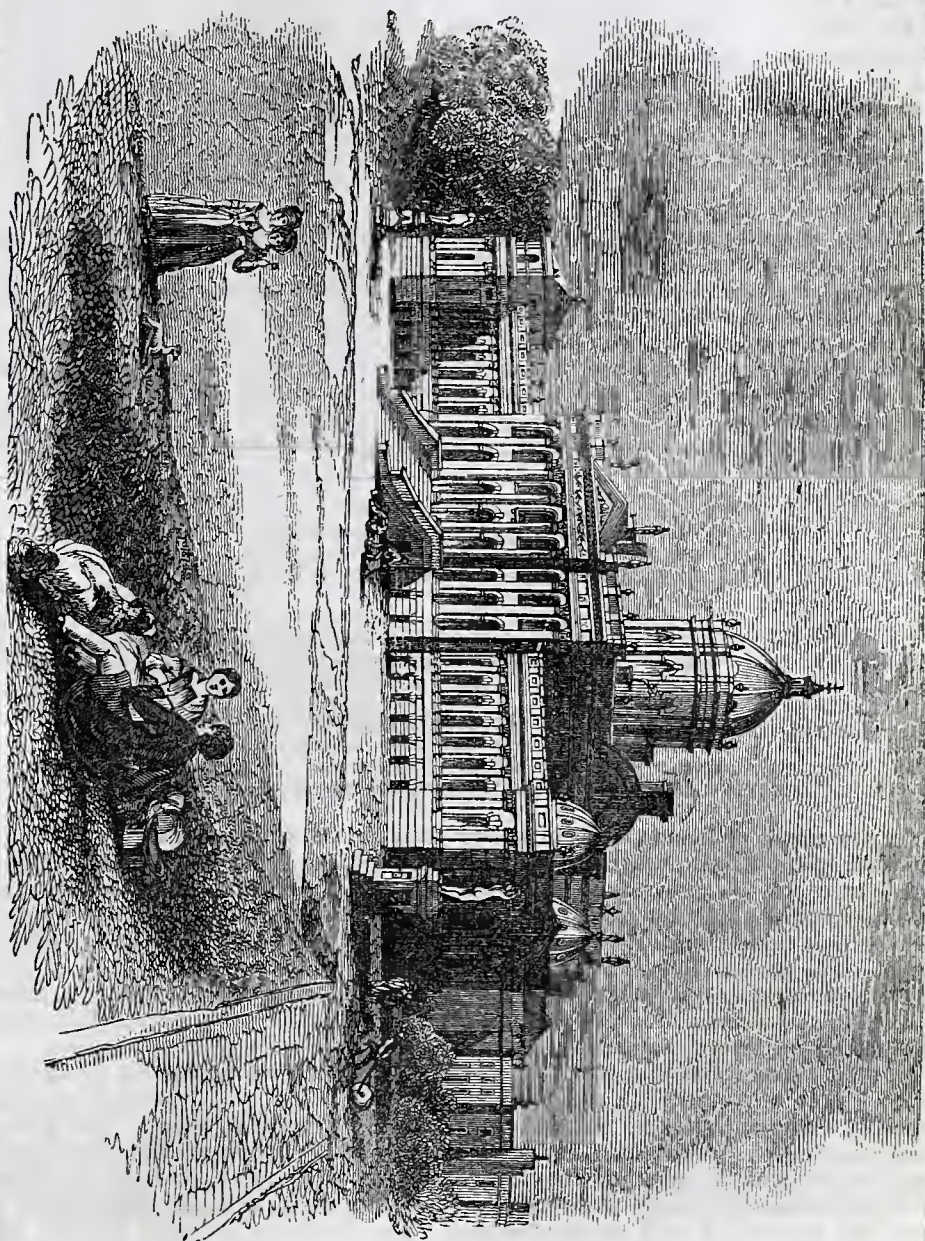


Vaults of Lady Place.

imposing, though not free from the charge of want of unity in its parts. The design for the buildings was made by Sir John Vanbrugh, the eminent architect of Blenheim; but one of the wings was built much more recently by Sir James Robinson, and to him is owing the alleged incongruity. The front is very long, and the whole pile, with its cupolas, its roofs, and its massive clustered chimneys, is stupendous. The approach is through an ancient gateway flanked with appropriate towers. The site of the present mansion was formerly occupied by the old castle of Hinderkelf, which was destroyed by an accidental fire. Castle Howard, its successor, was erected by the third earl of Carlisle, as he has himself informed us in some verses, amiable in sentiment but not remarkable for spirit or elegance. The north front consists of an elaborate centre of the Corinthian order, with a cupola rising over the top, and on either side extensive wings, the east according to the original design, the west from Sir James Robinson's. The south or garden front is also very magnificent. Its centre, consisting of a pediment and entablature supported by fluted Corinthian pilasters, is approached by a grand flight of steps, and the view from these of the whole front is strikingly noble. At the extremity of the east wing is the kitchen with square towers at the angles. Before the south front a beautiful turf terrace, decorated with statues, extends away from the house for the space of half a mile, where it terminates in an Ionic temple with four porticoes and a beautiful interior. The cornices of the door-cases are supported by Ionic columns of black and yellow marble; and in the corners of the room are pilasters of the same beautiful material. In niches over the door are various ancient busts. The floor is disposed in compartments of antique marble of various colors, and the whole crowned with a richly gilded dome.

The interior of the castle fulfils all that the imagination, warmed by the outward grandeur, can expect or desire. The lofty and richly-decorated rooms are everywhere teeming with objects of curiosity and vertu, and with the works and masterpieces of human skill, pictures, statues, and busts. To give our readers an adequate idea of the amazing riches scattered about in the greatest profusion, and attracting the eye in every apartment of the building, is impossible. The pictures, for instance, are too numerous to allow us even to mention their names, although they are almost inestimable in value, as they are almost countless in number. Among them are works by almost every great master; we may mention Titian, Rubens, Guido, the brothers Caracci, Rembrandt, Domenichino, Salvator Rosa, Holbein, Jansens, Wouvermans, Velasquez, Vandyck, Sir Peter Lely, Sir Joshua Reynolds, &c. There are three paintings in particular, which formed a part of the celebrated Orleans Gallery, and which found their way to England during the troubles of the French revolution. One is the "Finding of Moses," a fine specimen of the characteristic genius of the Spanish painter Don Diego Velasquez; another is the "Entombing of Christ," by Ludovico Caracci, a painting of extraordinary pathos, grandeur, and sublimity. But the most valuable of the three, and not only of the three, but of the whole collection, is the "Three Marys," by Annibal Caracci. "In this astonishing effort of art," says Mr. Henderwell, "all the excellences of painting are united. In drawing, in coloring, and in composition, indeed, it can not be surpassed. The moderate size of the canvass enables the eye to take in at once the whole subject, and the figures are so skilfully grouped, so prominent and so distinct, with a separate yet suitable adaptation of interest to their several characters, as forcibly to arrest the attention. The lifeless body of Christ exhibits a most solemn and affecting image of death, appealing in the most awful manner to all the feelings which Christians associate with that event. The mother of Jesus, overwhelmed with sorrow and in a fainting attitude, contrasts in a masterly manner with the dead body of her son extended at her feet. The strong emotions of grief and terror expressed by the elder Mary, at the apparent extinction of her daughter's life, exhibit distress of a more varied kind than that of Mary Magdalen, which is an agonizing and concentrated woe heightened to the most extreme degree of poignancy; and it is truly astonishing that such fixed despair, such sense of excruciating misery, could have been depicted on the human countenance without tending toward grimace or distortion." It is said that the court of Spain offered to cover it with *louis-d'ors* as its purchase-money, which have been estimated to amount to about £8,000; but it is added, that still more has been offered for it in England.

The hall of the mansion, measuring thirty-five feet square and sixty in height, is surmounted by a dome with Corinthian columns, the top of which is one hundred



South Front of Castle Howard, Yorkshire.

feet from the floor: it is very handsome and noble. On the walls are representations, by Pellegrini, of the history of Phæton, with the four seasons, the twelve signs, &c. In recesses are statues of Augustus, Marcus Aurelius, and other works of ancient sculpture. There are also many antique busts on pedestals. In the saloon, a noble room, are many more statues and busts, with a number of pictures. The ceiling is embellished with a representation of Aurora. The chimney-piece of the dining-room is unusually superb. The cornice of white and sienna marbles, with groups of polished white in the centre, is supported by fluted columns of sienna marble. Upon it are three fine bronzes. This room also contains two beautiful slabs of Sicilian jasper, and a valuable urn or vase of green porphyry, with many busts and pictures. In the breakfast-room are two elegant tables of verd antique, with various bronzes and pictures; and in a dressing-room are two curious cabinets of precious stones. The antique gallery, measuring one hundred and sixty feet by twenty, among many other curiosities, contains various rare and beautiful slabs, and a small antique statue, found in Severus's wall, gilt and inlaid. The walls of the drawing-room are richly decorated with tapestry, from designs by Rubens. In the same apartment are two pedestals of green porphyry, on one of which is a sylvan deity. The museum contains a great assemblage of interesting objects: among these are thirteen urns, wherein were deposited the ashes of ancient heroes, an ancient mask, many busts, vases, &c. In the southwest corner is an object to gladden the heart of every antiquarian, of every scholar, and of every man of taste: we allude to a small cylindrical altar, about four feet and a half high, *which is supposed to have stood in the temple of Apollo at Delphi*, according to the site ascribed to it by Chandler. A tablet on its top bears the following inscription commemorating a circumstance of additional interest connected with it, relating to the agency by which it was transported hither:—

“ Pass not this ancient altar with disdain,
 ’Twas once in Delphi’s sacred temple reared;
 From this the Pythian poured her mystic strain,
 While Greece its fate in anxious silence heard.

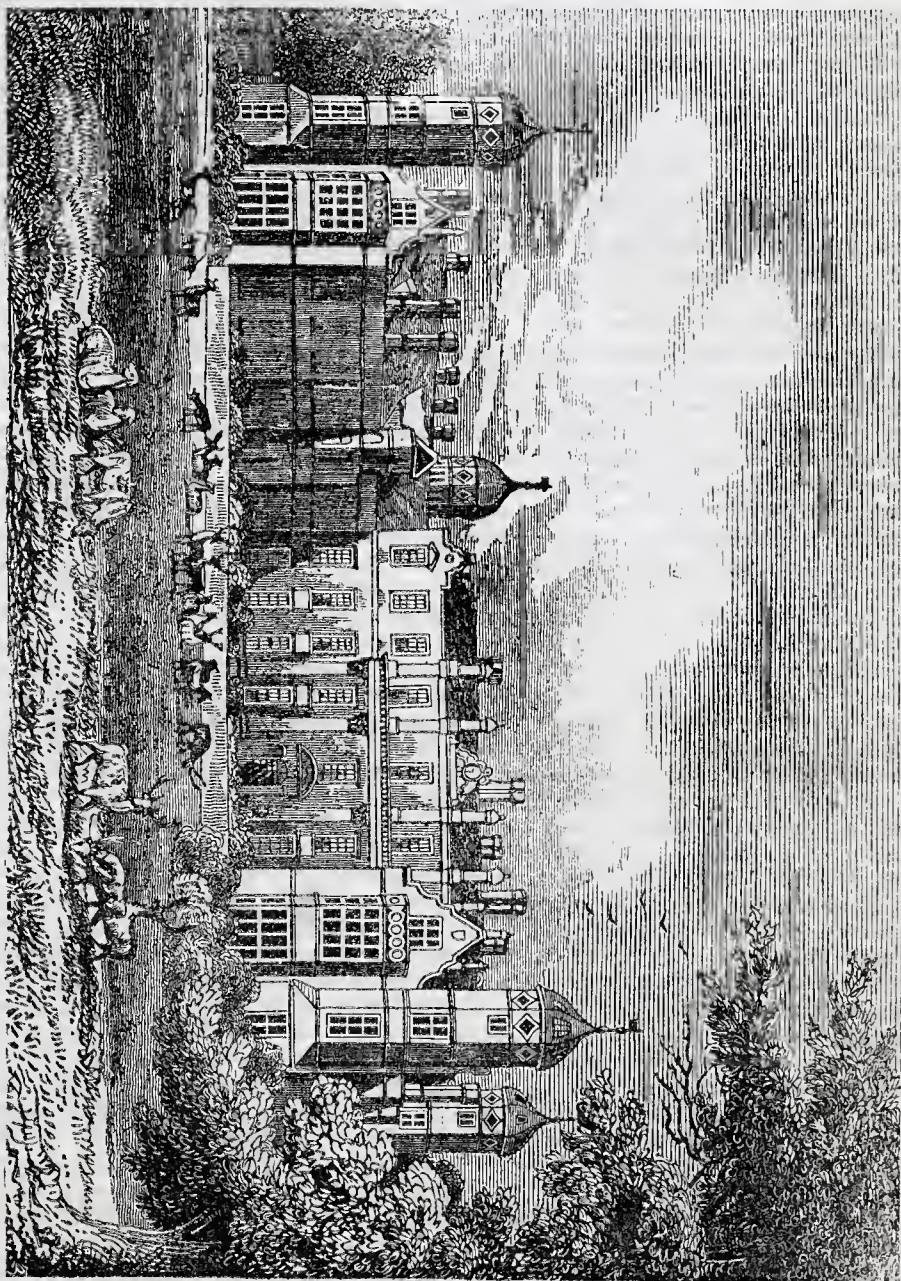
“ What chief, what hero of the Achaian race,
 Might not to this have bowed with holy awe;
 Have clung in pious reverence round its base,
 And from the voice inspired received the law?

“ A British chief, as famed in arms as those,
 Has borne this relic o’er th’ Italian waves,
 In war still friend to science, this bestows,
 And *Nelson* gives it to the land he saves.”

In the centre of four avenues of stately trees in the park, stands an obelisk, one hundred feet in height, bearing on one side inscriptions in Latin and English, commemorative of the successes of the Duke of Marlborough; on the other the verses we have before alluded to, recording that the plantations around and the magnificent edifice they enclose, owe their existence to the third earl. The date on the pillar is 1712. The park and grounds are very extensive, and arranged on a scale of grandeur commensurate with the importance of the mansion and the family to which they belong, and the eye is everywhere delighted with the intermixture of lake, lawn, and forest. A splendid mausoleum stands about half a mile from the house.

It is a circular building fifty feet in diameter, with a lofty dome surmounted by a colonnade of twenty-five pillars of the Roman Doric order, the whole standing upon an elevated basement, which is reached by two flights of steps. The inside is very handsome: the cornice from which the dome rises is supported by eight columns, each standing on its pedestal; the dome is entirely of masonry, wrought in elegant compartments, and the pavement, corresponding in style, is inlaid with bronze ornaments, intermixed with various marbles. The ornaments generally are very light and beautiful. The basement contains sixty-four catacombs built under groined arches. Here repose the remains of the third earl. At the entrance of the wood, which shelters the house from the east, stands a square pedestal decorated with antique medallions, and supporting an urn with various figures representing the sacrifice of Iphigenia.

Cobham hall is described by Hasted, in his “History of Kent,” as a noble and stately building, consisting of a centre and two wings; the former being the work



Cobham Hall.

of Inigo Jones, and the latter having been made uniform, cased with brickwork, sashed, and otherwise modernized, about fifty years ago. The park is extensive, but it was formerly much more so, and is finely interspersed with wood and stately trees. Some of the oaks are twenty feet and upward in circumference, and Hasted mentions a chestnut-tree which was twenty-three feet in girth; and he states that the park had the reputation of producing venison of superior quality, and that the celebrity which it enjoyed was occasioned by the peculiar excellence of the herbage.

In the fifteenth century, the manor and estates of Cobham were in possession of Joan, granddaughter and heiress of John, Lord Cobham. She is said to have been married five times, and one of her husbands was Sir John Oldcastle, who assumed the title of Cobham. The freedom with which he was disposed to view spiritual matters drew down upon him the bitter spirit of persecution which distinguished the times of Henry V., during the second year of whose reign (1414) the statute against heretics was obtained. By this, the chancellor, judges, sheriffs, justices of the peace, and all who had any share in the administration of the law, were sworn to exert their whole labor and diligence to search and destroy all manner of heresies, errors, and Lollardies. Persons convicted of heresies were to forfeit all their possessions. Under the direction of Archbishop Chicheley, the bishops and superior clergy made diligent inquiries in parishes where persons suspected of heresy were supposed to dwell; and in order to remove, as far as possible, all grounds of suspicion, three respectable men were to swear whether they knew of any one differing in life and manners from others, or supporting error, or having suspicious books, and to denounce them. The Lollards at that period alarmed both the ecclesiastical and secular power. It is stated in Wilkin's "Concilia," that, at this period, a book belonging to Sir John Oldcastle had been seized at the shop of a limner, with whom it had been left to be illuminated. This book was taken to the king, by whom it was read in Sir John's presence, and declared to contain heterodox opinions; and the king asked Sir John if he did not think so, to which he replied in a guarded manner, saying that he had not read two pages of the book. The clergy charged him with harboring the Lollards, and supporting their opinions; but Sir John, who had been the intimate friend of the king in his younger days, and, as Dr. Lingard alleges, the original of Sir John Falstaff, was protected from any process before the usual tribunals, in order that the efficacy of the royal efforts might be tried in inducing him to abandon his errors. These were unsuccessful, and the king, after upbraiding, proceeded to threaten, on which Sir John Oldcastle retired to his castle of Cowling, in Kent. The archbishop was ordered to proceed against him, and his virtue was put to such severe proof, that he was soon obliged to choose between safety at the expense of truth or martyrdom. The questions with which he was pursued having elicited grounds of conviction, he was declared guilty of heresy, and excommunicated. The primate procured for him a respite of fifty days, during which he escaped from the tower. Immediately after his obtaining his liberty an insurrection broke out, with which he is said to have been connected. In the proclamation issued by the king, it is declared that they (the Lollards) meant to destroy him, to confiscate the possessions of the church, to secularize the religious orders, to divide the realm into confederate districts, and to appoint Sir John Oldcastle president of the commonwealth. It does not, however, appear to be satisfactorily proved, though occupying so conspicuous a part in the proclamation, that he was at all concerned in the insurrection. He contrived to elude his pursuers for more than two years. In 1616, after a feeble attempt made by the Lollards to disturb the country, which it is alleged drew Sir John Oldcastle from his retirement, he was taken prisoner after an obstinate resistance. He was arraigned before the peers, whose authority he refused to acknowledge, on the ground that Richard II. was alive in Scotland, and was sentenced to be hanged as a traitor, and burned as a heretic. His widow kept possession of the estates, and died in 1433. From this period to 1596 the Cobham estates descended in lineal succession. In that year they came into possession of Henry Lord Cobham, who was lord warden of the cinque ports, and constable of Dover castle, lord-lieutenant of the county, and a knight of the garter. In 1603 this nobleman, with his brother and some others, was accused of having been engaged in Sir Walter Raleigh's conspiracy. They were brought to trial at Winchester, the plague then raging in London, charged with conspiring against the king's life, with a view to alter the established religion, subvert the government, and aid an invasion. They were found guilty, and judgment of death was pronounced against them. Lord Cobham's brother was executed, but

the capital sentence was remitted in his own case ; but being deprived of his estates, lived in great poverty until his death in 1619.

The Cobham estates by this means came into possession of the crown, and, in 1612, James I. granted them to the duke of Lennox, one of his own kinsmen. At the close of the seventeenth century they were sold, to enable the owner to pay off his debts.

The ancient manor-house of Knowle is situated in an extensive park, near the pleasant town of Sevenoaks, in Kent, and is deeply interesting, not only from its antiquity and the air of primitive grandeur that reigns throughout the domain, but from the memories of the distinguished men who have found a home beneath its roof, and from its possession of so many of those great creations of the pencil which are a wonder and a delight to all ages.

The date of the erection of the earliest part of the mansion is unknown. In the time of King John, Baldwin de Bethun possessed the manor, and from him it passed successively into the hands of the Mareschals, earls of Pembroke, and the Bigods, earls of Norfolk. In the reign of Edward I., Otho de Grandison was its lord, and by his successors it was conveyed to Geoffrey de Say, "admiral of all the king's fleets." Ralph Leghe appears to have been its next owner, by whom it was sold, in the reign of Henry VI., to James Fienes, who was connected by marriage with its former possessors, the Says. He was a soldier, who had distinguished himself in the war with France under Henry V., and was by Henry VI. summoned to parliament as Baron Say and Seale. Honors came thick upon him : he was successively appointed governor of Dover castle, warden of the cinque ports, chamberlain, and ultimately treasurer, of England. These dignities were dearly purchased by the ill-will and hatred of the people. When the rebellion, headed by Jack Cade, broke out, foremost among the nobles most obnoxious to the rebels was their own countryman, Lord Say. He was accordingly committed to the tower, probably for the double purpose of insuring his safety, and gratifying, by the appearance of the king's disapprobation, those who were clamoring for his blood. He was, however, taking thence by Cade, and, after a kind of trial in the Guildhall, his head was struck off. Our readers will remember the scene in Shakspeare's Henry VI., illustrative of this tragedy, and the touching, yet dignified defence of the doomed nobleman. Under other circumstances, the reasons given by Cade for his savage determination would be irresistibly ludicrous. He says to Lord Say : "Thou hast most traitorously corrupted the youth of the realm in erecting a grammar school ; and whereas, before, our forefathers had no other books but the score and the tally, thou hast caused *printed* to be used ; and, contrary to the king, his crown and dignity, thou hast built a paper-mill !" But a little time before, Cade had defeated the king's troops, and put their leaders to the sword, in the immediate neighborhood of Knowle, Lord Say's mansion.

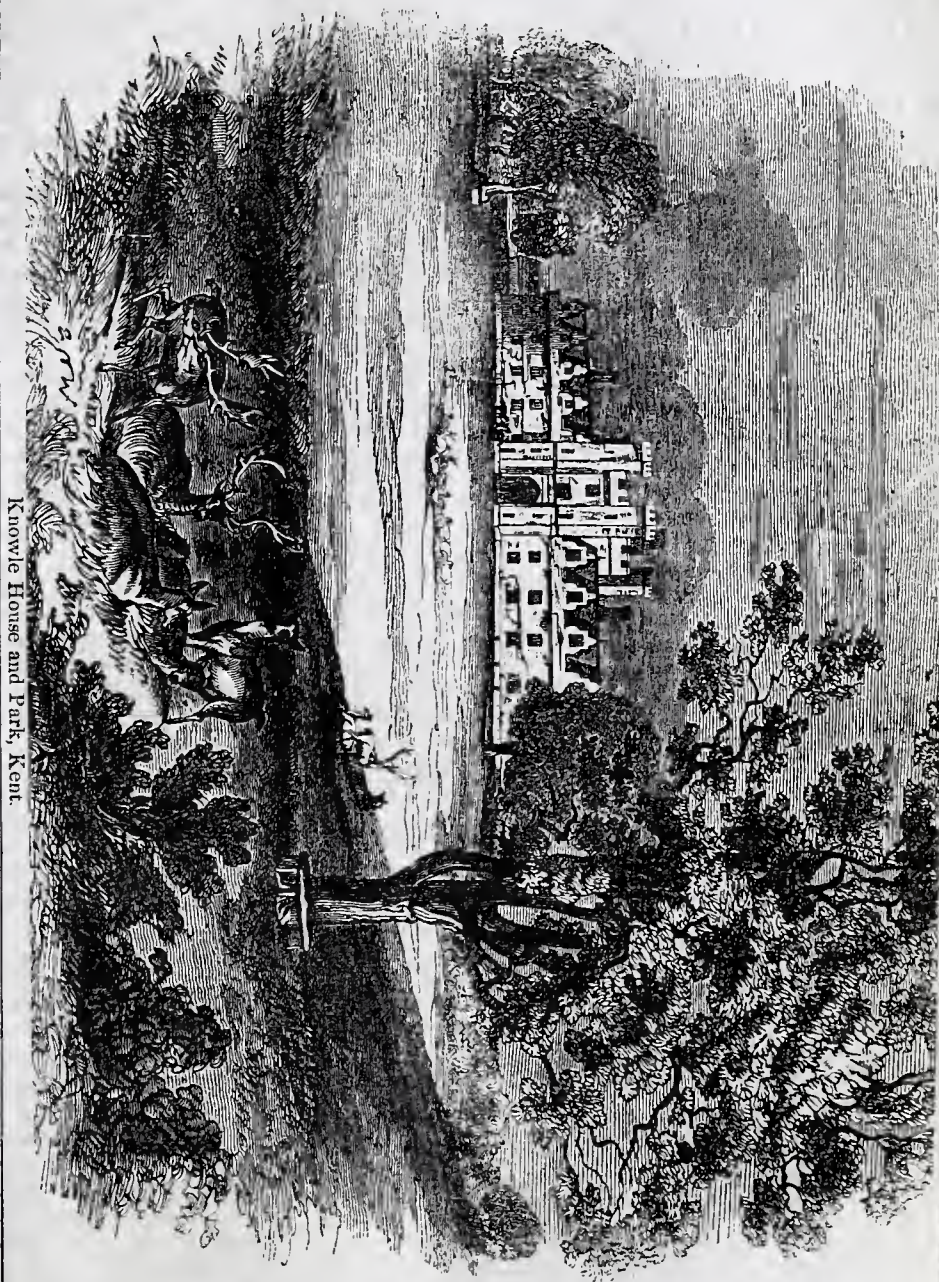
In the civil wars, the next Lord Say was compelled to sell Knowle to Thomas Bouchier, archbishop of Canterbury. In the sale was included all the tymbre, wood, ledde, stone, and breke," then lying in a quarry at Seale, intended probably by Lord Say for the rebuilding of the mansion ; and to which purpose the materials would doubtless be applied by the archbishop, who, says Hasted, in his "History of Kent," rebuilt the manor-house, enclosed a park round it, and left it (a magnificent bequest) to his successors in the see. By two of these, Morton and William of Wareham, the structure was enlarged and beautified. Kings Henry VII. and VIII. each visited Knowle during this period. In the reign of the latter, Cranmer gave up Knowle to the rapacious monarch. In the second year of the reign of Edward VI. it was granted to the protector Somerset, and, after his execution, to one no less unfortunate, the duke of Northumberland, the relative of Lady Jane Grey. By Queen Mary it was granted to Cardinal Pole, "to hold during the term of his natural life, *and one year after*, as he should by his last will determine." The cardinal dying (on the same day as his royal mistress) intestate, Knowle again became the property of the crown, and was granted by Elizabeth to her favorite, the earl of Leicester. By him it was surrendered back, in a few years, to the donor, though not before he had granted a lease for a term of years. At the expiration of the lease, Knowle came into the possession of the family to which it has ever since belonged, the Sackvilles, to one of whom, Thomas Sackville, a distinguished poet and statesman, the reversion had been previously granted. He was the author of the first regular tragedy in our language, "Gorboduc," which was exhibited by the students of the temple he then belonged to, as one of their Christmas entertainments. It was again exhibited 2.

1561, before Queen Elizabeth. He was also the author of two poetical pieces in the "Mirror for Magistrates," of which the editor of the "Pictorial History of England" says: "They evince a strength of creative imagination which had been unknown to the English muse since the days of Chaucer; and the Induction especially, which is throughout a splendid gallery of allegorical paintings, entitles Sackville to the renown of having had no small share in lighting the way to the greatest painter in our own or any other poetry—the divine Spenser." These poems were composed while the author was yet but Thomas Sackville, afterward to become, by Elizabeth's favor, Lord Buckhurst, and ultimately the first earl of Dorset. Two anecdotes, illustrative of the pride of Sackville's character, have been recorded, though on no very certain testimony. He had spent, principally in an embassy to France, so much of his fortune by what Fuller calls his "magnificent prodigality," as to be compelled to borrow of a certain city alderman, who on one of Sackville's visits kept him waiting a considerable time. The indignity at once reclaimed him from his expensive habits. The other circumstance is in relation to his imprisonment in his own house, by the queen's commands, for nine or ten months. He had been sent into the Low Countries to examine the truth of the charges made against the earl of Leicester, whence he was recalled by the influence of the latter, and disgraced. During this confinement, it is said, he would not allow his wife or any member of his family to see him. The death of his enemy restored him to Elizabeth's favor, and on Burleigh's death he was appointed to the high office of lord-treasurer.

In 1613, a considerable portion of the house was burnt down. In the commonwealth, the estate and mansion were sequestrated by Cromwell, who held a court here (it is said in the present dining-parlor) for the purpose. Our space will only permit us to notice another of the lords of Knowle—Charles Sackville, earl of Dorset, the poet, and the libertine of the court of Charles the Second, the Mæcenas of his time, whom Dryden, Butler, Wycherley, and Congreve, at home, and St. Evremont and La Fontaine abroad, alike praised for his taste and judgment, his elegance and his generosity. The latter quality, we fear, had undue weight with at least one, the greatest of his admirers, when we consider the apparent delicacy, but real grossness, of the compliment paid to him by Dryden, who, having undertaken to produce English authors superior to those of antiquity, observed: "I would instance your lordship in satire, and Shakspeare in tragedy!" We have somewhere read a pleasant anecdote of the same parties. The company they were in, disputing as to which could write the best impromptu, agreed each to try, and chose Dryden as the judge. All but the earl of Dorset seemed to take great pains; he carelessly scrawled a few words, and threw the paper upon the table. The effusions being examined, Dryden observed he thought the company would unanimously agree with him, that nothing could surpass the earl's, which he begged to read: "I promise to pay to Mr. John Dryden, or order, five hundred pounds, on demand. DORSET."

Of the magnificent state kept up in the good old days of Knowle, we may have some conception from a catalogue of the household and family of Richard, earl of Dorset, about 1620, given in Bridgman's account of the mansion. From this it appears, that for a considerable period there sat at the lord's table eight persons; at the parlor table twenty-one, including ladies in waiting, chaplain, secretary, pages, &c.; at the clerks' table in the hall twenty, consisting principally of the heads of the different domestic departments; at the nursery table four; at the long table in the hall forty-eight inferior servants; at the laundry table twelve; and in the scullery six.

The house stands in a park distinguished for the richness of its turf, and the stately grandeur of its oaks, its beeches, and its chesnuts. Its extent is considerable, being above five miles in circumference. The plantations are dispersed in broad and spacious masses. Deer, noted for their fine flavor, dart nimbly and shyly to and fro. The surface, here smooth and level, there broken and undulating, is everywhere beautiful; and the eye, charmed with the green luxuriance around, almost forgets to look for the greater attraction that brought it hither. But soon the mansion breaks upon the view; we think (and step eagerly along the while) of its age and its pictures, of the Sais, the Cranmers, and the Sackvilles. The front is now before us. Two lofty embattled towers guard the gate of entrance in the middle, and on either side are spacious wings, pierced with three stories of windows. The parts are plain, but the whole is imposing; and this character generally pervades the mansion. The principal buildings, in addition to the two fronts with their embattled gateways, are in the form of a large quadrangle, with a smaller one behind, relieved in the mass



Knowle House and Park, Kent.

by numerous square towers, the architecture being chiefly in the castellated style. In the quadrangle are casts from the Gladiator and the Venus. The lofty and extensive Gothic hall, with its characteristic-looking table fitted for the playing the old English game of shuttle-board, its richly-carved screen, its raised dais, and its stained glass, at once make us centuries older: we not only think of, but feel with, the past. The loneliness seems suddenly to be broken—the bustle of countless attendants going in and out begins, the tables groan with the profusion of the feast, bright jewels and still brighter eyes begin to sparkle, gorgeous vestments and sacerdotal robes mingle together, the solemn strains of music peal forth—it is some high festival! Alas! of our imagination only, as we are soon convinced by the gentle hint of the domestic at our elbow, which we obey, and move forward. The noble proportions of the hall may be conceived when we state its size: it is nearly seventy-five feet long, twenty-seven broad, and twenty-seven high.

A statue, said to be (we conceive wrongly) of Demosthenes, now claims our attention: it is more characteristic of the calm but earnest philosopher, than the excited and exciting orator. It is considered one of the most perfect works of antiquity we possess; its simple truthfulness of expression delights us, and convinces us we ought to be delighted. There are here pictures by Rubens, Jordaens, and Snyders, and several family portraits. The Triumph of Silenus is one of Rubens's most powerful works: the face of Silenus so richly inebriate, almost ready you could fancy to burst with the purple wine, the satyr leering over Silenus's shoulder, and the general vigor of the piece—make this painting alone worthy a visit to Knowle. The rude frescoes that decorate the staircase are evidently genuine restorations, and speak much for the directing taste. In the Brown Gallery there is a collection of portraits, the extent of which alone entitles it to be considered most interesting and valuable. There is scarcely a celebrated person of the last two or three centuries whose picture may not be found included. Unfortunately the authenticity of many of the portraits is questionable; as works of art, also, they do not possess any high merit, most of them being considered as indifferent imitations of the style of Holbein. In a dressing-room there are a Venus by Titian, a Salutation by Rembrandt, a Satyr and Venus by Correggio, and a Landscape by Salvator Rosa. The billiard-room contains a fine portrait of Sir Kenelm Digby, by Vandyck, and copies of Titian's wonderful pieces, the Diana and Calisto, and the Diana and Actæon. There are here also a Masquerade Scene by Paul Veronese, a St. Peter by Rembrandt, and a landscape by Poussin. The window is embellished with the picture of a man on horseback, with an inscription to the founder of the Sackville family, who came over with William the Conqueror. In the Venetian bedroom (so called from a Venetian ambassador, Nicolo Molino, having slept in it), is a glorious sketch, by Rubens, of Meleager and the Boar; a portrait of Mrs. Abingdon, by Sir J. Reynolds; and the Death of Cleopatra, by Domenichino. The ballroom contains portraits, among many others, of Edward, the fourth earl of Dorset, and of Ann, the third countess. The former killed Lord Bruce in a duel, in 1613, which was fought under circumstances of the most savagely ferocious nature; there being, for instance, no seconds, lest their interference might restrain the principals from the full and bloody consummation they meditated. The latter we notice as the writer of the following characteristic note to Charles the Second's secretary of state, in answer to a recommendation from him of a person to sit for her borough of Appleby: "I have been bullied by a usurper, I have been neglected by a court, but I will not be dictated to by a subject. Your man sha'n't stand. ANN, Dorset, Pembroke, and Montgomery." In the drawing-room is a portrait of a Chinese youth, who came to England to be educated, and was placed at the school of Sevenoaks. Some more great works adorn with their imperishable beauty the walls of this apartment: a Holy Family, by Titian; the same subject, by Paul Veronese; a Posthouse, by Wouverman; the Rape of the Wife of Hercules, by Annibal Caracci; a head of Raphael, and a Sibyl by Domenichino, &c. The mere enumeration of such subjects by such painters would suffice to satisfy the lover of art that there must be much to delight him at Knowle. In the dining or poet's parlor are portraits of almost every distinguished poet of England, a series that alike interests the national pride and individual love and admiration. But we must pass on more rapidly, merely noticing in our way the chapel-room, with its carved work of our Savior bearing the cross, said to be of one piece, and to have belonged to Mary Queen of Scots; the organ-room, containing, as we are informed, the first organ ever made (its very primitive construction certainly does not contradict

the statement), being a large box with rude finger-keys on the top, outside; the great Cartoon gallery, containing a set of copies of the immortal Cartoons of Raphael; and lastly, the king's bedroom, in which is the gorgeous bed of gold and silver tissue, said to have cost 8,000*l.*, and made for King James to rest in one night only. An act of magnificent loyalty! but one which, if it were to be taken by the nobles as a precedent, would doubtless make them wish kings' visits, like angels', to be "few and far between." In a colonnade there are some fine pieces of sculpture; a fountain nymph asleep, from Roma Vecchia, and a head of Antinous, from Hadrian's villa, &c.

Quitting the mansion, we once more feel the fresh bracing air of the park playing about our brow. Sight-seeing, however worthy the objects, necessarily fatigues the mind by the continual calls made upon its admiration. Therefore well pleased do we stroll along one of the verdurous paths, careless which we choose, in the certainty of finding all delightful. And what a scene presently breaks upon us! We are on the rising ground that skirts a gentle valley; the green murmuring forest is behind and above, while before—woods and heaths, towns and villages, churches and mansions, stretch away toward the distant hills of Hampshire; but above all, reposing on a gentle swell of the ground, making the eye gleam with pleasure but to see it, and the heart reverentially glad but to hear its name, is Penshurst, the home of the Sydneys; fair enough, as we now see it, to have inspired the Arcadia of the poet, and solemn enough, in its gloomier hours, to have cherished the noble daring, the firm resolve, and the unflinching fortitude of the patriot.

Wilton house, in the county of Wilts, stands in a beautiful park at the entrance to the borough town of Wilton, about three miles from Salisbury. The country around it is level, and accordingly the seat is not distinguished for its commanding position or its picturesque neighborhood. But the solid magnificence of the house, the serenely beautiful aspect of its grounds, and above all, the inestimable treasures of art for which Wilton is so deservedly famous, give to it a deeper interest than many more happily-situated edifices can inspire. In the grounds are some fine cedars of Lebanon, and at one end of the gardens is a handsome piece of architecture, in the shape of a porch or gateway, of very beautiful proportions, with two rows of pillars, one above the other, and recesses containing busts. This was designed by Hans Holbein, and attached formerly to the front of the building erected under the superintendence of that distinguished artist. This piece of architecture is all that remains of Holbein's work. From the appearance of colors it exhibits, it must have been formerly painted. The river Wily passes through the park, and is spanned near the house by a stately bridge.

The approach is through a Roman triumphal arch, surmounted by an equestrian statue of Marcus Aurelius. The house stands on the site of the once noble monastery of Wilton, which was so distinguished as to give the rank of baroness to the abbess, a right enjoyed by only three other establishments of the same kind. On the dissolution of the religious houses by Henry VIII., the monastery lands were granted to William, first earl of Pembroke. There are no remains of the ancient edifice.

Wilton house was begun in the reign of Henry VIII., and finished in the reign of Edward VI., the designs for the erection being made by the eminent artist Holbein. A portion of this was burnt, and subsequently rebuilt by Inigo Jones in a markedly different style.

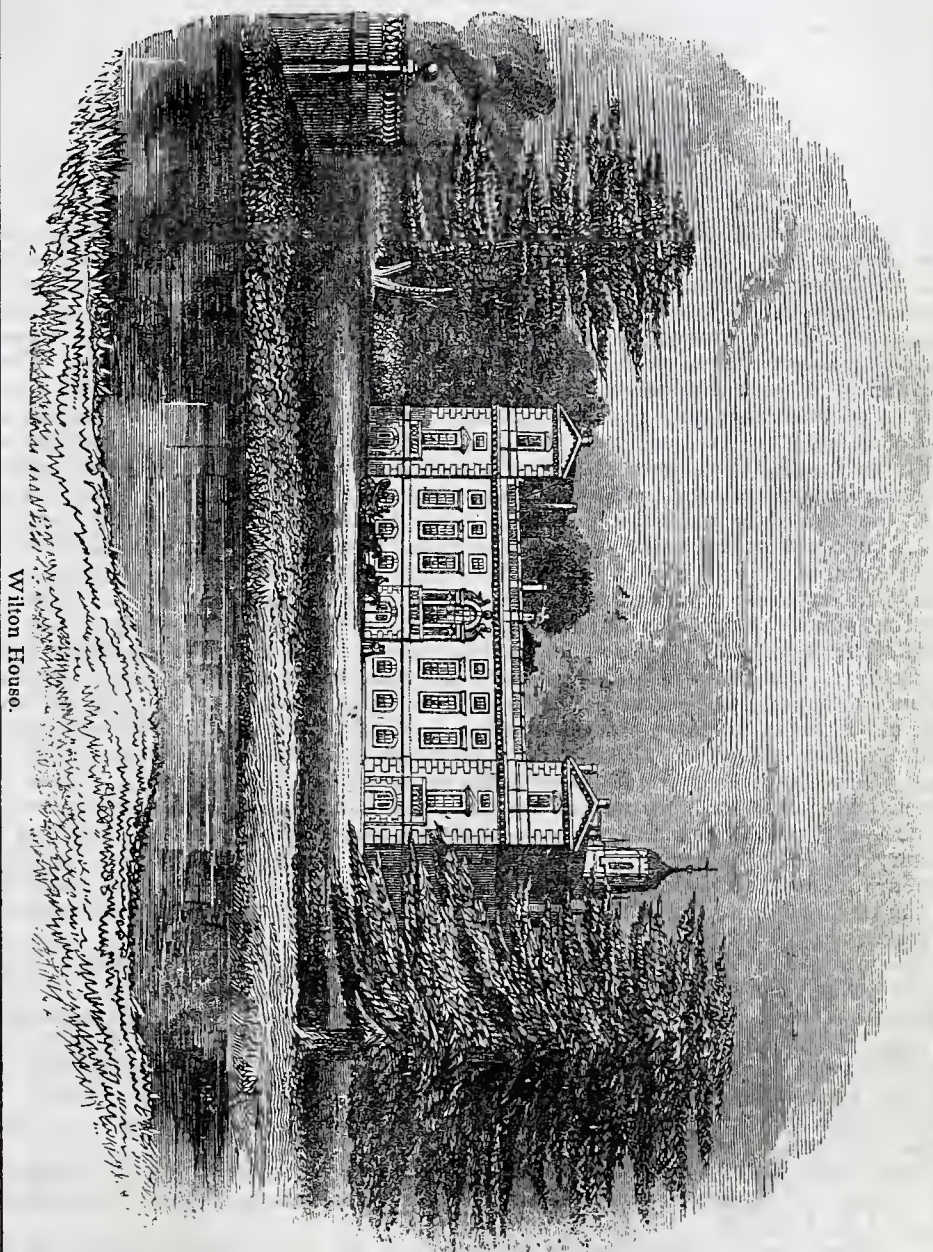
The interior of Wilton is literally crowded with busts, statues, and pictures, collected chiefly by the munificent industry of the eighth earl, who first purchased in 1678 the well-known Arundel collection, then afterward obtained considerable portions of the collections of Cardinals Richelieu and Mazarin, and lastly some busts from the Valetta gallery at Naples. In the hall are various family trophies and memorials, particularly some French suits of armor brought from the battle of St. Quentin, one of them belonging to Montmorency, constable of France, whom the earl of Pembroke made prisoner. From the hall we pass into a light and elegantly-proportioned corridor, which runs round all the four sides of the courtyard, with the doors of the different apartments of the mansion opening into it. Here nearly two hundred pieces of antique sculpture, many of them of almost incalculable value, are ranged in the order most admirably calculated for their appropriate display. The task of thus disposing them was intrusted to Mr. Westmacott, himself most honorably distinguished among modern sculptors. A portion of this corridor was built by the present earl, to whose taste and liberality Wilton is much indebted. We now

proceed to notice a few of the works that seem the most remarkable for their beauty or grandeur, or most interesting from any peculiar causes.

And first, of the busts: we may mention an aged faun, which, though mutilated, exhibits still the spirit of its composition; a female bust, of very elegant workmanship, called Marcia Ottalica; a young faun looking eagerly round, the conception of which is as strikingly original as the execution is finished and delicate; and lastly, a very pleasing bust of Lucilla, daughter of Antoninus, and wife of Lucius Verus. Among the statuary are many pieces of workmanship, of a grand and beautiful character. One of them is a tomb or sarcophagus found near Athens by some travellers. It is about six feet four inches in length, two in breadth, and two in height, including the raised lid or cover. On the latter the seasons are allegorically represented in bas-relief, and on the tomb the history of the descent of Ceres to the earth, the recovery of Triptolemus, the youthful son of Celeus, king of the Eleusinians, and his education by the goddess, to fit him for the mission on which he finally departed, namely, to teach the world the art of agriculture. A Greek inscription informs us that it is "dedicated to the infernal gods, to Aurelius Epaphroditus, her husband, by Antonia Valeria." But perhaps the most extraordinary remains of antique art is the mosaic work, which has no known parallel. This is an alto-relievo of mosaic, thirteen feet high and sixteen wide! It represents Hercules resting one arm on the stump of a tree, on which is thrown the lion's skin, his hair adorned with a golden bandeau; behind him rises the branch of a tree with golden fruit, around which is twined a large serpent. The eyes of Hercules are fixed upon a female figure opposite, one of the daughters of the Hesperides, who is holding a branch with three golden apples, and who is also gazing upon him with deep interest. The design is simple, excellent, and noble; and the colors, the proportions, and the attitudes, show the workmanship to be equal to the design. The small square pieces of mosaic are pressed nearly close together into a white mass, and are disposed with so much art, that the white interstices have the appearance of a close net-work covering the entire composition. The other sculptures to which our notice must be confined are—a round marble altar of Bacchus, adorned with spirited bas-reliefs, and bearing an urn with a relief of Apollo and two other figures, one of them a genius bringing an offering to the god; a bas-relief of Jupiter enthroned, with the eagle on the left hand, and before him a naked youth preparing an offering, who is placing his hands in a vessel supported on a stand of simple but elegant form; a large sarcophagus representing three events in the life of Meleager; Cupid bending his bow, an exquisitely beautiful piece of sculpture; a gigantic sarcophagus representing the death of Niobe's family, containing no less than twenty figures; colossal statues of Bacchus and the Roman god Vertumnus, the latter dispensing from a cornucopia grapes, fruit, and corn; and lastly, an urn bearing in slight relief the figure of a female mourner of the most exquisite beauty.

The paintings are hung in different apartments of a noble suite of rooms well calculated to display them to advantage, and include the works of many of those great masters whose names illumine the pages of the history of art. An antique painting of the divinities Minerva, Hercules, Diana, Apollo, Ceres, Vertumnus, and Juno, is remarkable for its bold style. "Judith with the head of Holofernes, and her maid," is a carefully-executed picture, by Andrea Mantegna. The attitude and features of Judith are gracefully noble. There are two elegant, highly-finished, small, whole-length portraits of Francis II. and Charles IX. of France, by Zuccherò; and a spirited waterfall, by Salvator Rosa.

The most valuable part of the collection is that which includes the pictures of the Dutch and German schools, among which are various great works, particularly by Rubens, Holbein, and Vandyck. The Assumption of the Virgin, who is surrounded by cherubim, and borne upward by angels, is a rich but small picture, by Rubens, who afterward painted the same design, on a large scale, for a church at Antwerp. There is also a fine Landscape at Sunset, by the same painter; and a copy of one of his works, in which Christ and John are introduced as children with a lamb. There is a masterly portrait of the father of Sir Thomas More, by Holbein; and a very celebrated painting, by Vandyck, of Philip, earl of Pembroke, and his family. This is the largest of all Vandyck's works, measuring no less than eleven feet in height by nineteen in breadth, and includes many figures. It has been injured by fire, and by the attempt to restore it. There is also a great number of other pictures by men



Wilton House.

more or less distinguished, which amply merit a less summary and more individualized notice than this hasty allusion.

At Wilton Sir Philip Sydney wrote his "Arcadia," and a still greater poet, Massinger, first saw the light.

CHAPTER XVI.

MANUFACTURING TOWNS.

A LARGE part of the population of England is collected in cities and towns of considerable size. Some of these may be classed under the separate heads of manufacturing and commercial towns, while others are either university towns, naval stations, cathedral towns, or towns for summer recreation or the residence of persons in independent circumstances. The cities and towns of England are of great number, and, though often of plain exterior, include an immense amount of wealth. The prevalence of brick in domestic buildings, and of the smoke arising from coal fires, gives a peculiar character to English towns. In all, however, there are numerous churches and other public edifices, and in some there are many streets built of stone.

For an account of the capital of England, which unites the manufacturing, commercial, educational, and leisurely characters in one, we must refer to a future page.

At the head of the manufacturing towns stands *Manchester*, the chief seat of the cotton manufacture of England. This town is situated on the river Irwell, in the south-east district of Lancashire, at the distance of 182 miles from London. Inclusive of Salford, a separate municipality on the other side of the Irwell, and also comprehending a few connected villages, Manchester contained in 1831 a population of 279,398, now probably increased to 350,000. The ground on which it stands is a perfect level, and, from whatever side it is approached, its crowd of spires, towers, manufactories, and warehouses, appears mingling with the smoke that hangs over it. The older part of the town clusters round the collegiate church, an elegant and spacious structure of the time of Henry VII., or extends in the ancient street called Deansgate. The busiest commercial street is Market street, and the most elegant is Mosley street. The town contains most of the usual public buildings to be found in one of its size—a town-hall, infirmary, prison, exchange, &c., besides several institutions of a literary and scientific character; and several of these buildings, particularly the first two, are of remarkable elegance. A botanic garden, about a mile from the outskirts of the town, is a great ornament, and forms a delightful as well as instructive place of recreation. There is also a zoological garden.

The factories of Manchester exceed a hundred and twenty in number: they employ between thirty and forty thousand persons, and steam engine equal in power to five thousand horses. About four fifths of the cotton manufacture of the kingdom centres in Lancashire, and of this a large proportion is confined to Manchester. The woolen, linen, and silk trade, particularly the last, and many smaller manufactures, as of hats, pins, umbrellas, &c., are also carried on to a large extent in this town. It may be added, that the making of machinery has of late years become a thriving trade in Manchester.

Manchester is connected with its port Liverpool by a railway, and, by means of the Irwell and numerous canals, it transports and receives goods to and from other parts of the kingdom.

The above may be considered as an outline of this great seat of manufacturing and commercial industry. Fully to describe the bustle of wagons and human beings on its streets, to detail the vast mercantile transactions in which it is engaged, or describe its numerous factories and workshops of various kinds, would require a separate volume. In the ways of details, we can only afford room for a description of two or three working establishments, which we find in a neat local volume, entitled *Manchester as it is*:—

Many of the mills are immense buildings, raised to the height of six, seven, and

eight stories, erected at an expense of many thousand pounds, and filled with machinery costing as many more. The capital sunk in a single mill will sometimes be fifty thousand pounds, and frequently is as much as one hundred thousand pounds. Some of the mills contain nearly two thousand hands. A visit to one of the largest mills, if an introduction can be procured, is a gratifying treat. The rooms are kept in the most perfect state of cleanliness, and the strictest order and regularity prevail. Every operation is performed by rule, and the subdivision of labor is carried out in the most minute manner. The mills and factories are of various sorts, namely, cotton spinning-mills, silk spinning-mills, woollen spinning-mills and factories, small ware factories, and power-loom weaving factories.

Among the cotton mills, one of extraordinary extent, belonging to Messrs Birley & Co., is situated in the suburb called Chorlton-upon-Medlock. It consists of a group of buildings, upon which, including machinery, several hundred thousand pounds have been sunk. The number of hands employed by this firm is one thousand six hundred, whose wages annually amount to the sum of forty thousand pounds. The amount of moving power is equivalent to the labor of three hundred and ninety-seven horses. The number of spindles in the mills is about eighty thousand. The annual consumption of raw cotton is about four millions pounds weight! The annual consumption of coal is eight thousand tons. It will perhaps excite surprise in a person unacquainted with the nature of machinery, when informed that the annual consumption of oil, for the purpose of oiling the machinery, is about five thousand gallons; and the consumption of tallow, for the same purpose, five thousand pounds. The annual cost of gas is six hundred pounds. One room alone, belonging to this firm, contains upward of six hundred power-looms. Besides the hands engaged in the cotton department, the following description of mechanics are employed in this mill: millwrights, mechanics, joiners, bricklayers, plumbers, painters, moulders, turners, and smiths.

The establishment in which the fabric is manufactured for waterproof clothing, such as "*Mackintosh Cloaks*," belongs to Messrs Birley & Co., and is a part of their concern. The number of hands employed in this business varies from two hundred to six hundred. The immense amount of two hundred fifty thousand pounds weight of India-rubber is annually consumed in the process of manufacture, to dissolve which one hundred thousand gallons of spirits are employed.

In the establishments called small-ware mills, of which there are several in Manchester, the articles of cotton, worsted, and silk tapes, are very extensively manufactured. To trace the various processes a piece of tape passes through, and the various employments it affords, before it comes into the market, is a very curious and interesting occupation. Beginning, then, with the first commercial operations. The cotton used in the manufacture of tapes, having been warehoused in Liverpool, is sold on account of the importer, and brought to the order of the manufacturer by cotton-brokers. It is conveyed by canal or railway to Manchester; and when delivered at the works of the purchaser, is weighed, assorted, mixed, and spread, with a view to obtain equality in the staple. It is then taken to the willowing-machine to be opened and rendered flocculent; thence it is transferred to the blowing-machine, which cleanses it from dust and makes it feathery. Attached to the blower is a lapping apparatus, by which the cotton is taken up and laid in a continuous fleece upon a roller, in order that it may be conveniently carried to the carding-engine, there to be made into a fleece of the most equable texture possible; thence it is handed to the drawing-frame, where it is blended with the production of all the carding-engines connected with the particular set or system to which it belongs. It is next passed through the slubbing-frame, afterward through the jack or roving-frame, and then through the throstle or spinning-frame, upon which it is made into yarn or twist. From the throstle, the yarn, if intended for warp, is forwarded to the winding-frame, but if intended for weft, to the reeler; afterward, that which is wound is delivered to the warper, that which is reeled, to the pin-winder. The weaver next operates upon it, passes it through the loom, rubs up the tape, and consigns it to the taker-in, who examines the fabric, and transfers it to the putter-out, who sends it to the bleacher. When bleached, it is handed to the scraper, whose business it is to take out the creases, and open the tape, by running it under and over iron-scrappers. This having been done, the piece is put through the calender, when it is pressed between hot bowls and rendered smooth and glossy. It is next taken to the lapping department, where it is neatly folded by young women, after which

the maker-up forms the pieces into parcels, containing the required quantity, and places them in a powerful press to make them compact. He next papers them, and sends them to the warehouse for sale.

Some idea of the extent to which this manufacture is carried on in Manchester, may be formed from the fact, that, at the works of Messrs. Wood and Westheads, upward of one million two and forty thousand yards of good, not exceeding three inches in width, and composed partly or entirely of cotton, linen, silk, or worsted, are woven in *one week*, or upward of thirty-five thousand two hundred and twenty-seven miles in *one year*.

One of the principal establishments in the department of steam-engine making and engineering, is that belonging to William Fairbairn, Esq., situate in Canal street, Great Ancoats street. To persons unacquainted with the nature of working in iron, an admission into these works affords perhaps the most gratifying spectacle which the town can present of its manufactures in this metal. Consequently, almost every person of distinction visiting the town contrives to procure an introduction to the proprietor before leaving it. In this establishment the *heaviest* description of machinery is manufactured, including steam-engines, water-wheels, locomotive-engines, and mill-gearing. There are from five hundred to six hundred hands employed in the various departments; and a walk through the extensive premises, in which this great number of men are busily at work, affords a specimen of industry, and an example of practical science, which can scarcely be surpassed. In every direction of the works the utmost *system* prevails, and each mechanic appears to have his peculiar description of work assigned, with the utmost economical subdivision of labor. All is activity, yet without confusion. Smiths, strikers, moulders, mill-wrights, mechanics, boiler-makers, pattern-makers, appear to attend to their respective employments with as much regularity as the working of the machinery they assist to construct.

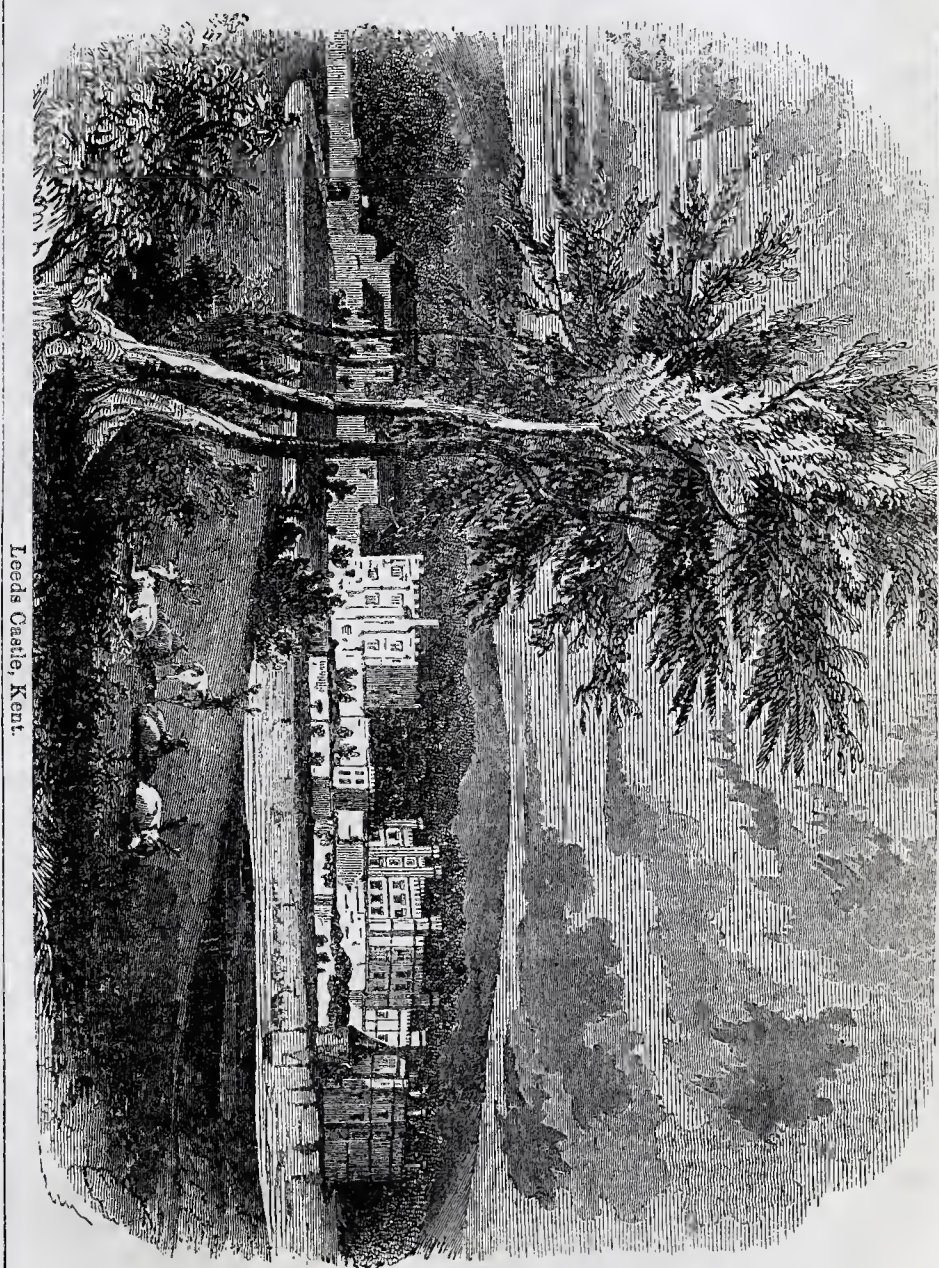
In one department mechanics are employed in building those mighty machines which have augmented so immensely the manufacturing interests of Great Britain, namely, steam-engines. All sizes and dimensions are frequently under hand, from the diminutive size of eight-horse power to the enormous magnitude of four-hundred-horse power. One of this latter size contains the vast amount of two hundred tons or upward of metal, and is worth, in round numbers, from five thousand to six thousand pounds.

The process of casting metal is conducted here on a very large scale. Castings of twelve tons weight are by no means uncommon: the beam of a three-hundred-horse power steam-engine weighs that amount. Fly-wheels for engines, and water-wheels, though not cast entire, are immense specimens of heavy castings. A fly-wheel for an engine of one-hundred-horse power measures in diameter twenty-six feet, and weighs about thirty-five tons. In this establishment some of the largest water-wheels ever manufactured, and the heaviest mill-gearing, have been constructed—one water-wheel, for instance, measuring sixty-two feet in diameter. The average weekly consumption of metal in these works, in the process of manufacturing, owing to the quantity of wrought iron used, and the immense bulk of the castings, is sixty tons or upward, or three thousand one hundred and twenty tons annually.

This extensive concern forwards its manufactures to all parts of the world. The stranger is told, on inquiry, that this article is for Calcutta, that for the West Indies; this for St. Petersburg, that for New South Wales; and there are, besides, men belonging to it, *located* in various parts of Europe, who are employed, under the direction of Mr. Fairbairn, in superintending the erection of work manufactured on these premises.

Leeds, the chief town for the manufacture of cloths, is situated in the West Riding of Yorkshire, on a slope gently rising from the river Aire, at a distance of one hundred and eighty-nine miles from London. It contains a few streets of handsome houses, but, as in many other English manufacturing towns, utility appears to be more in contemplation than ornament or elegance. The population in 1831 was 123,393. There are some goodly public structures, as a court-house, commercial buildings, theatre, &c., and the town enjoys the benefits of a literary and philosophical society, an institution for the promotion of the fine arts, and several public libraries.

Leeds is the centre of a large district devoted to the making of mixed and white cloths. Cloths of light fabric, and blankets, and carpets, are also made here in considerable quantity; but the mixed and white cloths form the staple of the business



Leeds Castle, Kent.

of the district. The mode in which these are sold in Leeds gives occasion for the existence of two public buildings of a most peculiar nature. They are called respectively the Mixed Cloth Hall and the White Cloth Hall. A description of the former, from a popular work, will convey an idea of both: "The Mixed Cloth Hall was erected in 1758, at the general expense of the merchants. It is a quadrangular edifice, surrounding a large open area, from which it receives the light abundantly, by a great number of lofty windows; it is one hundred and twenty-eight yards in length and sixty-six in breadth, divided in the interior into six departments, or covered streets, each including two rows of stands, amounting in number to eighteen hundred, held as freehold property by various manufacturers, every stand being marked with the name of the proprietor. This hall is exclusively appropriated to the use of persons who have served regular apprenticeship to the trade or mystery of making colored cloths. The markets are held on Tuesdays and Saturdays, and only for an hour and a half each day, at which period alone sales can take place. The market-bell rings at six o'clock in the morning in summer, and at seven in winter, when the markets are speedily filled, the benches covered with cloth, and the proprietors respectively take their stands: the bell ceasing, the buyers enter, and proceed with secrecy, silence, and expedition, to bargain for the cloth they may require; and business is thus summarily transacted, often involving an exchange of property to a vast amount. When the time for selling is terminated, the bell again rings, and any merchant staying in the hall after it has ceased becomes liable to a penalty. The hall is under the management of fifteen trustees, who hold their meetings in an octagonal building, erected near the entrance to this hall."

Huddersfield, Wakefield, Saddleworth, Halifax, and Bradford, all in Yorkshire, and Rochdale, in Lancashire, are other towns noted for their concern in the cloth manufacture, but of inferior population, and not distinguished by any remarkable features. Axminster, Kidderminster, Ashton, and Wilton, are the chief seats of the carpet manufacture. Bradford, in Wiltshire, is distinguished for superfine cloths.

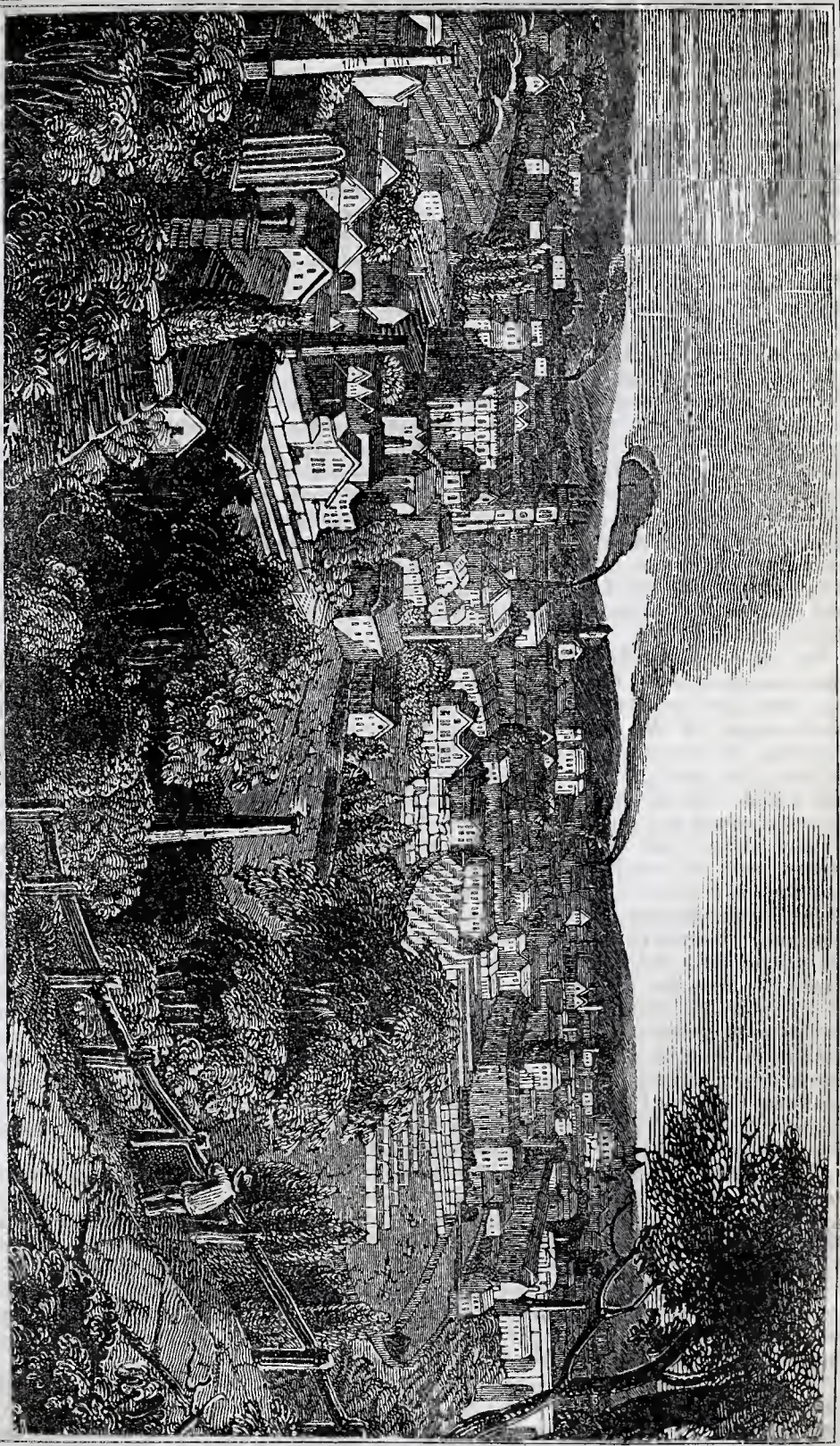
Birmingham, the chief town in the kingdom engaged in metallic manufactures, is situated in Warwickshire, at the distance of one hundred and nine miles from London. The lower part of the town consists chiefly of old buildings, is crowded with workshops and warehouses, and is inhabited principally by manufacturers; but the upper part has a superior appearance, consisting of new and regular streets, and containing a number of elegant buildings.

The population of Birmingham in 1831 was 146,986, being all, except a small fraction, engaged in trade and manufactures.

Among the principal manufactures are buttons, in immense variety, buckles, cloack-pins, and snuff-boxes; toys, trinkets, and jewelry; polished steel watch-chains, corkscrews, &c.; plated goods for the dining and tea table, now in the way of being superseded by similar goods of mixed metal; japanned and enamelled articles; brass work of every description; swords and firearms; medals and coins of various kinds; copying machines and pneumatic apparatus; grates, fireirons, gas-light burners, nails, and steel pens. Besides almost every metallic article which can be considered as curious, useful, or ornamental, cut crystal is produced to a large extent, while certain branches of the cotton trade connected with hardware, as the making of the cloth for umbrellas, braces, girths, &c., have also fixed themselves here, in order to facilitate the preparation of those articles.

The operations of the Birmingham manufacturers are carried on chiefly by means of foundries, rolling-mills, die-stamping machines, and turning-lathes. From the foundries proceed all heavy iron goods, and even a considerable quantity of small wares, though the work required in trimming these articles after they leave the sand causes a constant tendency toward the use of the die-stamp in preference. By the latter machine, not only are buttons and other small articles produced, but likewise complicated decorative articles of many various kinds, to which it might be supposed that the process was inapplicable. The rolling-mill is a ponderous engine for pressing out ingots of metal into sheets of requisite thinness. The lathe, a conspicuous machine in the workshops of Birmingham, is used for the preparation of articles of correctly circular, and also of oval form. It is usually driven by steam; and in many instances this power is not generated in the premises of those who use it, but is obtained for a rent from some engine kept by a different individual in the neighborhood.

To give an idea of the extent of some branches of trade, and the activity of some



Halifax, Yorkshire.

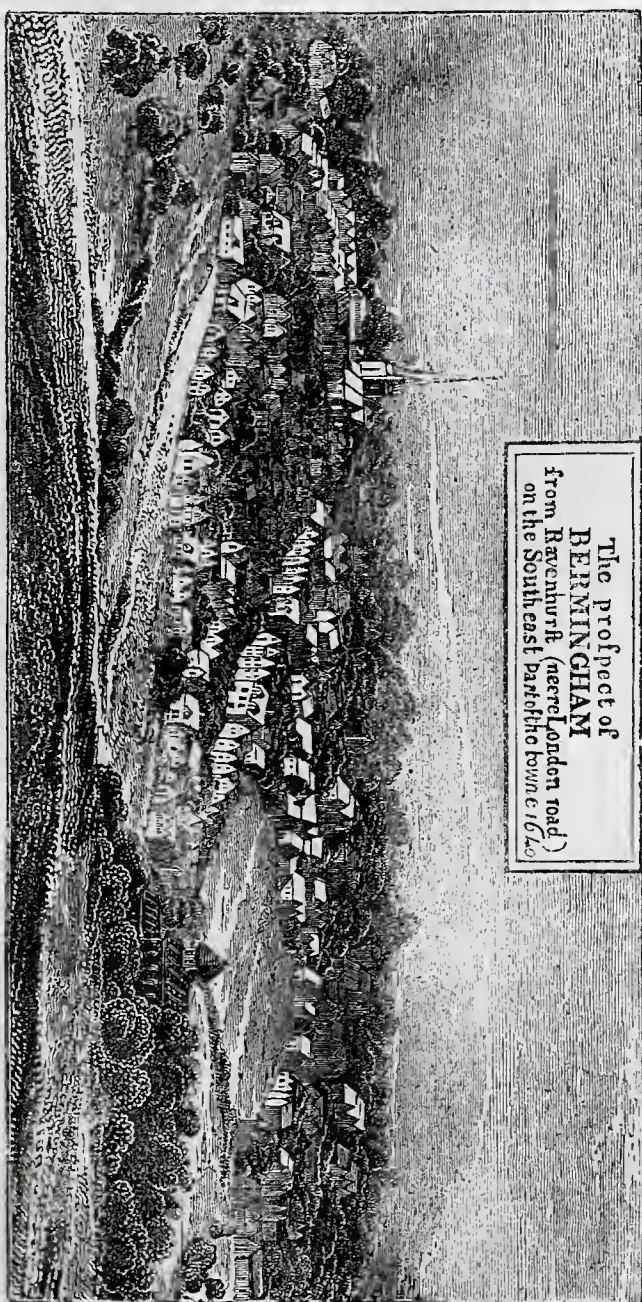
kinds of machinery, at Birmingham, it may be stated that, at the pin-works, some years ago, twelve thousand pins could be cut and pointed, and fifty thousand pin-heads made from the wire, in an hour; that there is a coining-mill, which produces between thirty and forty thousand pieces of coin in the same time; and that, from 1805 to 1818, five millions stands of arms were made for public and private service. The making of steel pens, which, before 1821, was scarcely known, is now a great manufacture. Probably not less than ten millions are made annually. There is one individual in the trade who employs two hundred and fifty persons, and consumes every year upward of forty tons of metal. The article was originally sold at the rate of one shilling each pen, and now, from improvements and facilities in the manufacture, one hundred and forty-four are sold at the same money.

The history of Birmingham is somewhat sullied by outrages perpetrated by a mob. The 14th of July, 1791, being the second anniversary of the taking of that old fortress of despotism, the French bastille, was fixed upon by one of the parties into which the town was divided, as a day of rejoicing, and it was determined to celebrate it by a public dinner. The other party also resolved upon a counter display, and they, with very different sentiments, also resolved to get up a public dinner on the same day. A number of persons congregated during the evening around the headquarters of each party; rumors circulated among them, which they were too unenlightened to see the folly of, and they made an attack upon the house in which the party friendly to the French revolution were assembled. The windows were soon demolished, and the rooms were searched by the rabble, who entered in the hope of laying hold of Dr. Priestley; but he had not attended the dinner. The multitude then proceeded to the chapel in which he was accustomed to officiate, and in half an hour it was in flames. Afterward they set out for Dr. Priestley's residence, which was about a mile out of the town; they gutted it of the furniture, books, philosophical instruments, and manuscripts, on which he had spent some of the most valuable portion of his life.

On the following day (Friday, July 15th), a number of the respectable inhabitants assembled in St. Philip's churchyard, to be sworn in as special constables; but they were but imperfectly organized, and the civil authorities did not display sufficient energy for the occasion. The mob, therefore, recommenced the work of destruction, but were at one time dispersed by the special constables. They, however, rallied again, and in a second attempt to disperse them, one of the special constables was killed. No military force being present, the mob went on to exercise their mischievous power uncontrolled. About 10,000 of them proceeded to the house of Mr. Ryland, at Easy hill, and the premises were soon in flames. The wine-cellar was broken open, and many of the besotted rabble became intoxicated with its contents, and were in it when the roof and heated ruins fell to the ground. This day the places in which persons were confined for crime were broken open, and the inmates liberated. Barrels of ale were broached in the street, before the houses of respectable persons who wished to propitiate the favor of the capricious body into whose hands the town had fallen. Mr. Hutton was one of those who had placed a barrel of ale before his house to regale the mob. When it had been emptied, they proceeded to drag him out of the house, and compelled him to give them money, and not content with his compliance, they confined him in a public-house until they had drunk three hundred and twenty-nine gallons of ale at his expense, and afterward exhibited their good faith toward him by destroying everything in his house to the minutest article. The rioters closed their proceedings this day by the destruction of Bordesley hall, the residence of John Taylor, Esq.

On Saturday, the work of havoc was resumed. The house of Mr. Hutton, at Bennett's hill, and that of Mr. Humphries, were first destroyed. At the latter place it was determined to make some defence, but the idea occasioned so much alarm among the female part of Mr. Humphries' family, that it was abandoned. As the family made their escape from the house, the mob entered it, and the work of destruction was speedily completed. At the house of Mr. W. Russell, at Showell Green, another attempt was made to withstand the mob, but without success. During the day, the houses of Mr. Hawkes, Lady Carhampton, Mr. Hobson, Mr. Bidarck, Mr. Harwood, and Mr. Coates, were destroyed.

On Sunday morning the work of mischief was resumed by an attack on the house and chapel of Mr. Cox, at Wharstock. The contents of the cellar were first drunk, and the house and premises were then set on fire, the mob waiting to see that the



The prospect of
BIRMINGHAM
from Ravenhurst (near London road)
on the South east point the town c 1640

View of Ancient Birmingham.

ruin was complete; after which they disposed of the meeting-house and parsonage-house of Kingswood in a similar manner. They then proceeded to Edgbaston hall, where they displayed their usual fury. At ten o'clock in the evening, three troops of cavalry had arrived at Birmingham, and on this intelligence being communicated to the rioters, they discontinued their lawless operations. They did not, however, at once disperse, but forming themselves into small bodies, levied contributions on hamlets and farmhouses, until finally the country-people collected together in their own defence and dispersed the ruffians.

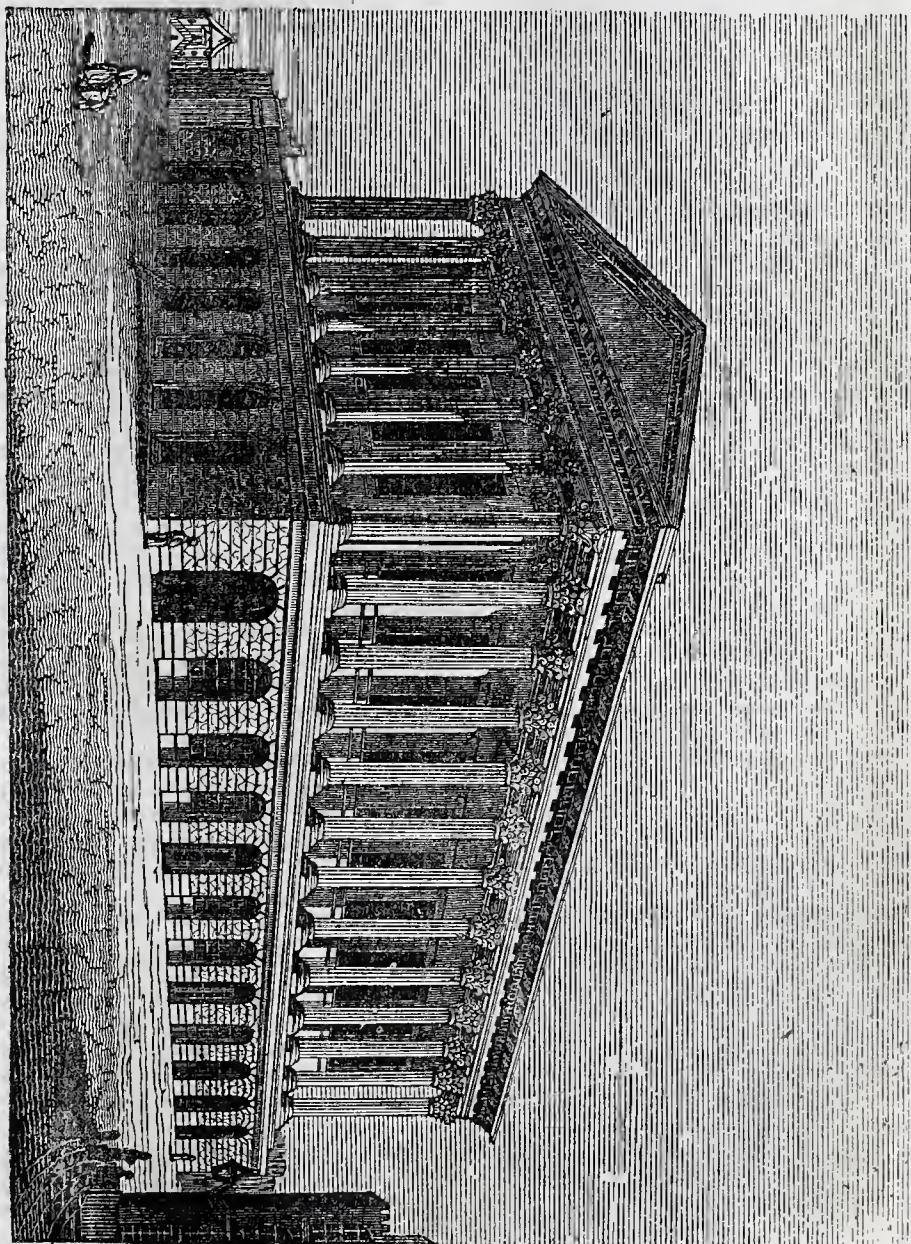
It is quite immaterial under what watchword a body of men carry on a series of outrages on the persons and property of their fellow-citizens. The folly and wickedness of such acts can in no way be diminished or rendered less conspicuous thereby. Forty-five years ago the Birmingham rioters plundered their fellow-townsmen in the name of "church and king;" and five years ago the city of Bristol was in the hands of a mob equally ignorant and foolish, whose rallying-cry was exactly the reverse of that of the Birmingham rioters of 1791. In both cases the lamentable proceedings which took place were the results of ignorance of the most fatal description.

All men have so strong an interest in the security of property, that its possessors will never be long in aiding each other when it is forcibly attacked. However surprise or want of energy may paralyse them for the moment, a community whose best interests are in jeopardy soon assumes a defensive position. The shameful perpetrators of violence then find that their own interests have suffered not less severely than those of their injured neighbors, although in a less direct manner. During the riots at Birmingham, three of the persons who sustained the greatest damage to their property employed in their several concerns many hundred persons, who would be thrown out of employment by the derangement which such events occasion in manufacturing and commercial establishments. After a considerable interval, all those whose property had been injured by the rioters, recovered damages from the county to the extent of 26,961*l*.

Dr. Priestley, whom the rioters thought to have seized when they first commenced their proceedings, fortunately made his escape from his house with his wife and family. Before quitting his residence the fires were put out, in the hope that the mob, not finding immediate facilities for destroying the house, might be induced to relinquish the idea. This precaution, however, had not the desired effect, and the laborious task of hewing and tearing the house to pieces was quickly begun. Dr. Priestley first retreated to Worcester, and afterward to London, where he was appointed to succeed Dr. Price, as the pastor of a congregation at Hackney. He finally quitted his native land in 1794, for America, where he purchased 200,000 acres of land on the banks of the Susquehannah, about 120 miles from Philadelphia. Here he spent the remainder of his days in retirement, not undisturbed by domestic sufferings. In 1796 his wife died of a fever, and his second son was shortly afterward cut off by the same malady. Dr. Priestley died February 6th, 1804, in the 71st year of his age. A tablet of white marble, with a suitable inscription, was erected to his memory at Birmingham, by the congregation over which he had presided.

Among the public buildings of Birmingham, the town-hall calls for particular notice, being a magnificent structure of the Corinthian order, in the proportions of the temple of Jupiter Stator at Rome. Our engraving exhibits an accurate view of the elevation. The large proportions of the hall, its commanding height, and its splendid series of Corinthian columns which run completely round upon a rustic arcade, render it not only the most imposing building in Birmingham, but one with which very few modern erections can compete.

The internal arrangement of this building exhibits a large saloon or hall, one hundred and forty feet in length, sixty-five wide, clear of the walls, and sixty-five feet high from floor to ceiling, with corridors of communication running along on each side of it on its own level, and staircases leading to upper corridors to give access to galleries. The corridors are low, the two tiers being within the height of the basement externally. As the hall is intended principally for musical entertainments, one end of it is occupied by a magnificent organ and surrounding orchestral arrangements. This organ is of enormous dimensions, and has cost £3,000. Two narrow galleries run along the sides of the hall, and a large deep gallery occupies the other end; rooms for the accommodation of the performers who may be employed, are formed at the upper end of the building and under the orchestra.



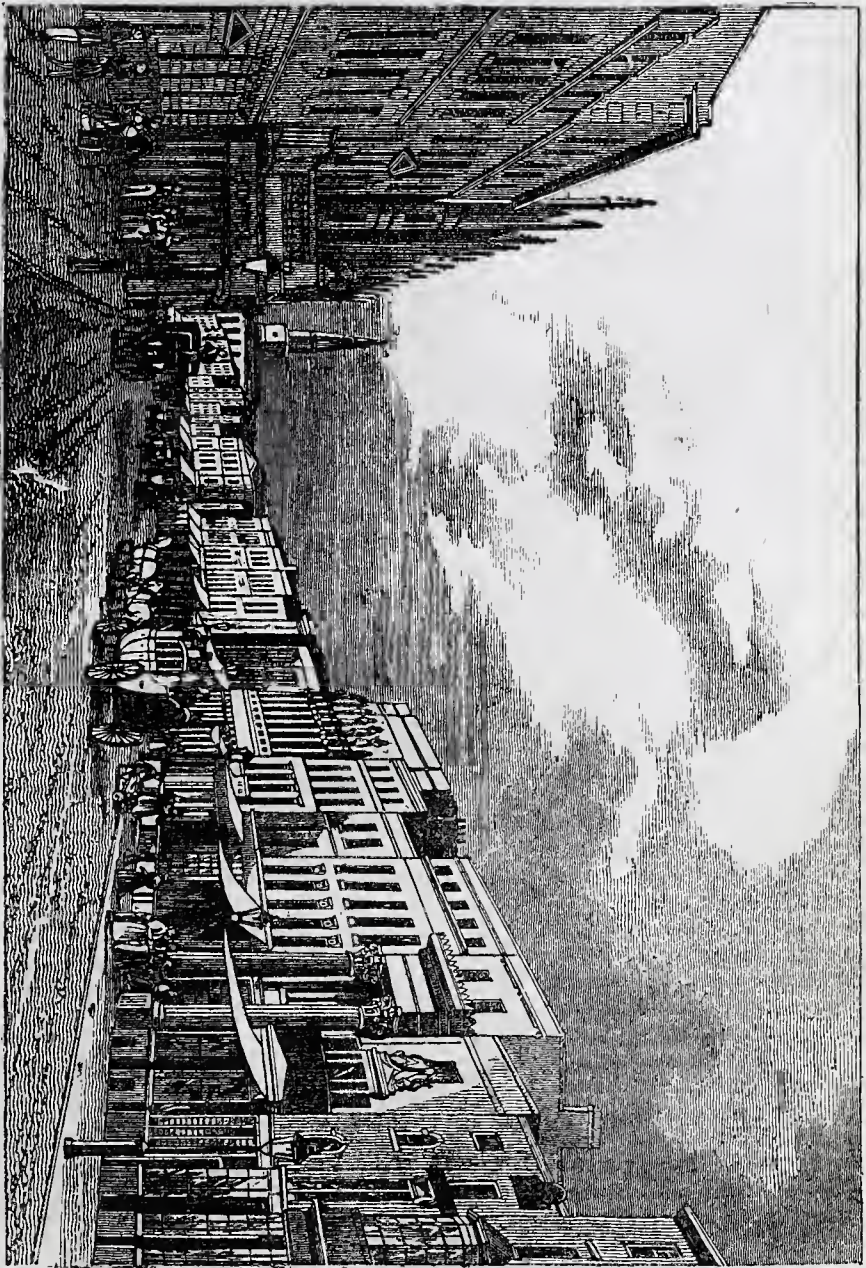
Town-Hall of Birmingham.

The building is lengthened externally to one hundred and sixty feet, by the projection of the arcaded pavement in front to Paradise street, over the causeway. The height of the basement above the causeway is twenty-three feet—the columns resting upon its upper surface or platform are, with their entablature, forty-five feet, and the pediment forming the frontispiece is fifteen feet high—making a total height of eighty-three feet from the causeway to the acroterium. The columnar ordinance employed is in imitation of the Roman foliated or Corinthian example of the temple of Jupiter Stator; the columns are fluted, and the entablature is greatly enriched, though not to the full and elaborate extent of the original. The structure is of brick, faced with Anglesea marble, of which latter material the columns and their accessories are composed. The bricks were made on the spot of the earth taken out of the foundation. The stones were cut and worked by machinery with steam power, the flutings were made by the same means, and by the application of an invention, it is understood, of one of the contractors. Another ingenious invention, consisting of a species of craning lever-beam on rollers, was applied for the purpose of hoisting the framed tie-beams and principals of the roof from the ground up to the walls. The time given for the completion of the edifice was eighteen months, and the total cost was to be £18,000, though it is understood that the marble used in it has been supplied by the proprietor of the quarries free of cost, for the purpose of bringing the article into public repute.

Birmingham does not possess any buildings remarkable for their antiquity. The church of St. Martin, which stands at the edge of the town, on the London side, is doubtless the most ancient building in the town, though no precise date can be fixed to the period of its erection. The spire is finely proportioned, but both the tower from which it springs, as well as the body of the church, were encased in brickwork in 1690, and are therefore more remarkable for their singular appearance than anything else. The spire, however, was not thus disfigured, but was taken down in 1783 to the extent of forty feet, and rebuilt to its original state with a durable stone from the neighborhood of Nuneaton. In the interior of the spire there is an iron shaft 105 feet in length, which is secured to the masonry by iron braces, at intervals of ten feet. The tower contains twelve musical bells. The attempts to "beautify" this church do not appear to have been well managed, as the principal monumental memorials of the ancient lords of Birmingham were destroyed when the exterior of the edifice was repaired. The successive erection of galleries, to provide sittings for the increasing inhabitants, occasioned alterations to be made, which have caused them to be still further mutilated or removed.

The increase of the town occasioned the erection of another church (St. Philip's) in 1715, and this was surrounded by a cemetery of four acres in extent. The church of St. Philip is of the Corinthian order, and is placed on the summit of a hill, and the dome and cupola with which it is surmounted are therefore conspicuous objects. The triennial musical festivals for the support of the Birmingham general hospital, were held there from their commencement in 1778 to 1829.

St. John's chapel, Deritend, on the south side of the Rea, was erected in 1735, and the tower, in which are eight bells, twenty-seven years afterward. St. Bartholomew's chapel, on the east side of the town, was built in 1749, and St. Mary's in 1774. St. Paul's was erected in 1779, from a design by Godwin; the steeple was not completed until 1823. St. James's chapel, Ashted, was consecrated in 1810. Christ church was begun in 1805, but was not completed till 1816; it contains an excellent organ. St. George's, erected in 1822, is a Gothic edifice, with a lofty tower in the style of Edward III. The dimensions of the interior are ninety-eight feet by sixty, and it possesses accommodations for nearly 2,000 persons. The internal decorations and arrangements are executed on a superior scale. The height of the tower to the top of the pinnacles is 114 feet. Trinity chapel, in the hamlet of Bordesley, is likewise from a Gothic design. A representation of Christ at the pool of Bethesda adorns the altar. St. Peter's chapel, Dale-end, is in the Grecian style of architecture; it was finished in 1827, but the interior was destroyed by fire in 1831. St. Thomas's, also in the Grecian style, stands on an eminence called Holloway Head, and was consecrated in 1829; the height of the tower is 130 feet. The dimensions of the interior are 130 feet by 60. The ceiling is enriched with highly-ornamental panels, and is thirty-eight feet from the floor. This church possesses accommodation for more than 2,000 persons. All-Saints, on the road to Soho, was consecrated in 1833, and is a brick structure with stone pinnacles.



New Street, Birmingham.

A striking idea may be formed of the wants of society in the present day, and of the manner in which they contribute to stimulate industry and direct the ingenuity and skill of the manufacturing population into an immense variety of channels, by the following detailed list (taken from the population returns of 1831) of the branches into which the staple trade of Birmingham is divided:—

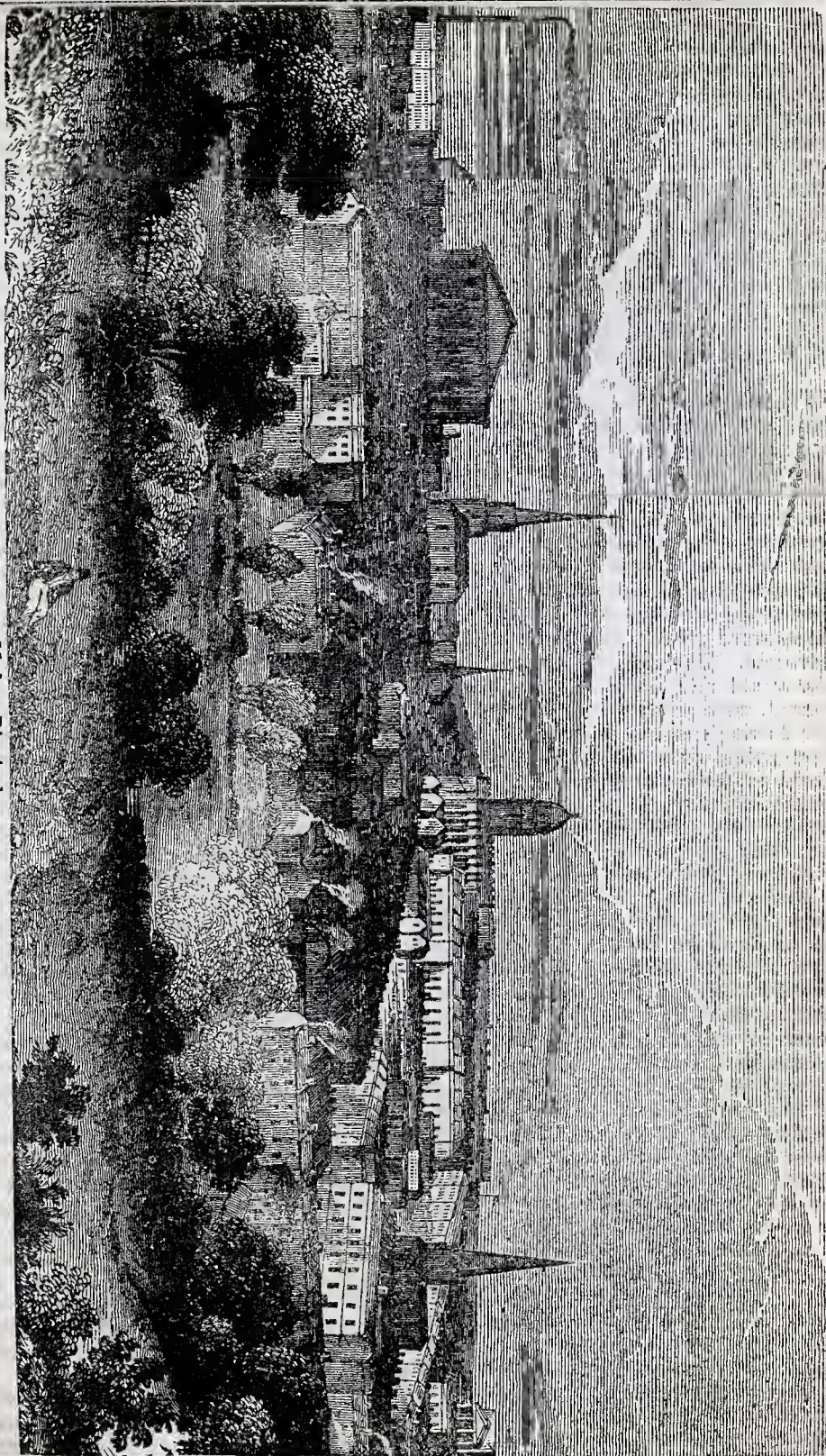
Makers of anvils 5; augers 1; awl-blades 7; bayonets 1; beer-machines 2; bellows 4; bellows-pipes 7; blacking 1; bolts 5; bone-toys 3; brace-bits 3; bottle-jacks 2; braces 8; brass cocks 1; braziers 7; bridle-bits 18; bridles 5; britannia teapots 51; bronze 1; buckles 10; burnishers 2; buttons 646; cabinet locks 3; candlesticks 4; casters 94; casting-pots 3; chasers 29; clock-dials 4; clock-work 2; coach-lace 1; coach-springs 7; coach-founders 5; coffin furniture 2; coral-carver 1; corkscrews 3; currycombs 1; die-sinkers 60; dirt-washer 1; dog-collars 4; edge-tools 8; enameller 1; fenders 17; files 55; filers 6; fire-irons 21; fishing-rods 1; floor-cloth 3; forgers 14; frying-pans 7; gas 3; gilders 15; gilt toys 255; gimlets 25; girth-springs 1; glass-blowers 16; glass 7; glass-pinchers 3; glass-boys 24; gold-cudler 1; gold-beaters 18; gold-plater 1; grinders 15; gauge-plates 1; gun-barrel filers 4; gun implements 19; gun-lock filer 1; hinges 19; horn-presser 1; iron-filers 4; iron-plate workers 6; key-maker 1; lanterns 1; lock-filers 3; lock-smiths 113; machines 2; malt-mills 12; mathematical instruments 16; metal-rollers 11; metal teapots 1; military ornaments 2; miniature-frames 1; modellers 7; needles 2; paper-trays 1; patent cards 1; patent sashes 5; pearl-workers 3; pewterers 5; picture-frames 2; pins 9; pistol-finisher 1; planes 26; platers 616; polishers 7; potash 1; refiners 20; repairer 1; ring-turners 4; rollers 3; ruler-makers 55; saddletrees 1; saddlers' tools 1; saw-handles 2; saws 7; scale-beams 25; Scotch snuff-boxes 1; screws 27; similorer 1; snuffers 40; solder 2; spades 6; spectacles 16; split-rings 5; spoons 67; spurs 2; stampers 94; steel-toys 171; steelyards 2; stirrup-filers 6; strikers 2; sword-cutlers 8; tarpaulins 4; tea-trays 21; tea-urns 11; thimbles 9; thread 2; tools 79; tortoise-shell workers 7; toys 13; traces 2; Tutania (Tutenag) teapots 6; varnish 2; vices 6; violins 1; waiters 4; watch-glasses 1; watch-hands 2; watch-pendants 1; watch-piinions 2; watch-springs 1; weavers 19; web 1; white-metal smith 1; wire-drawers 150; workers in copper and brass 34; workers in iron and steel 37; total 3,415. At Aston: makers of anvils 1; awl-blade 27; bellows 10; brass-founders 576; britannia metal 8; buckles 3; buttons 158; carpets 1; coffin-furniture 15; edge-tools 24; fenders 38; files 33; frying-pans 8; gilt toys 16; gimblets 16; glass 132; hinges 34; latches 1; locksmiths 59; machines 3; malt-mills 6; needles and fish-hooks 5; pewterers 10; pins 4; planes 6; rulers 18; saws 19; screws (wood) 27; snuffers 6; spades and shovels 1; spoons 36; steel toys 120; steelyards and scale-beams 17; thimbles 17; thread 3; traps (mouse and rat) 3; vices 2; weavers 5; wire 87; total 1,555. At Edgbaston: brass-founders 8; button-makers 6; coach-springs 1; files 2; gimlets and braces 2; glass 3; hackles 2; iron 6; locksmiths 4; platers 7; polishers 2; press-nails 1; rollers of metal 2; screws 1; spectacles 1; spoons 2; vinegar and starch-makers 3. Beside this specification, which produces a total of more than 5,000 men, a number not much less appears in the Birmingham return as *handicrafts*—brass-workers, gun-makers, jewellers, whitesmiths, glass-cutters, japanners, silversmiths and toymen.

The number of families employed in trade, manufactures, and handicraft, is 19,469; in manufacture, or in making manufacturing machinery 5,028; and the families of capitalists, bankers, professional, and other educated men are 2,388. Add to these 5,292 day-laborers employed in various ways, but not in agricultural labor; 966 male-servants, and 5,233 female servants: and it will be at once seen that Birmingham is well entitled, both on account of its population and industry, as well as its intelligence, to the designation of the Midland Metropolis.

Sheffield, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, ranks only second to Birmingham as a seat of metallic manufactures. It is a town of above 100,000 inhabitants, great part of whom are engaged in the business for which Sheffield is remarkable. The situation of the town, upon a swelling piece of ground near the confluence of the Sheaf and Don, gives it health and cleanliness, but only the newer streets and suburban villas are neat, and the town is constantly involved in the smoke arising from the manufactories. A music hall, postoffice, and medical hall, together with a building called the Cutlers' Hall, in which the members of that trade meet for an annual banquet, are the chief public buildings boasting of any elegance of exterior.

Sheffield was famous in the middle ages for producing knives and arrow-heads.

Modern Birmingham.



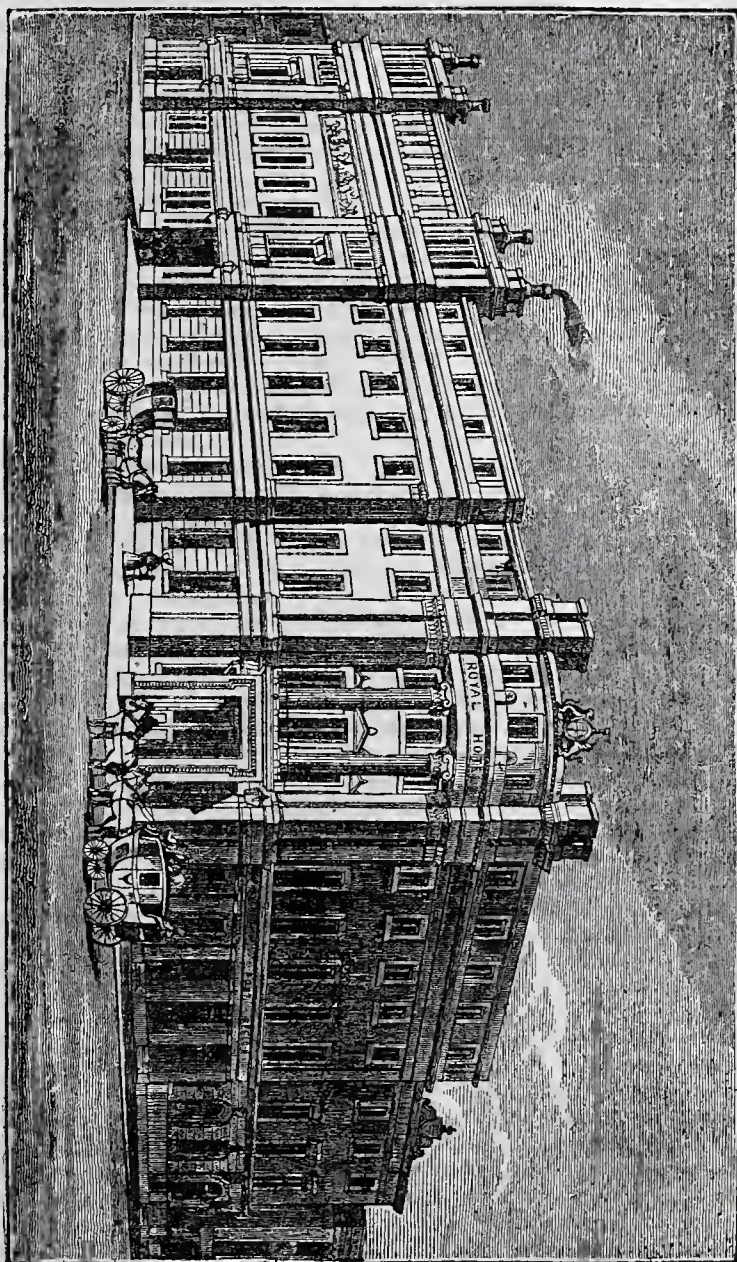
From such small beginnings it advanced, in the course of ages, to its present distinction. An immense quantity of knives, scissors, implements of husbandry, and surgical and mathematical instruments, is now made in it. The manufacture of plate, and of goods in imitation of it, as also of carpenters' tools, printing types, haircloth, and many other articles, is carried on to an immense extent. The manufactures of Sheffield have the peculiarity of being chiefly in the hands of men of moderate capital and limited business, though there are also a few houses which engross a vast quantity of the principal trade. The establishments for the grinding and polishing of cutlery are among the most striking objects of curiosity to a stranger; and the show-room of the Messrs. Rogers, cutlers to the late king, is a splendid museum, where all the local manufactures may be seen, of the best quality, and in the finest order.

Coventry, an ancient city in Warwickshire, ninety-one miles from London, is a great seat of the manufacture of ribands, and also of watches. Some other manufactures, carried on to a great extent in the last century, including gauzes and calimancoes, have declined, leaving these alone flourishing. The population in 1831 was 27,070, all except a small portion being engaged in trade and manufactures.

Coventry is an ancient town of note, and contains, besides some good modern public buildings, an old church of remarkable beauty as a specimen of Gothic architecture, and a very curious old hall (St. Mary's hall), used for festive purposes, having a grotesquely-carved oak roof, and a piece of tapestry wrought in 1450, measuring thirty feet by ten, and containing eighty figures. The town was remarkable in early ages for the performance of the grotesque religious dramas called "Mysteries," and for the shows and pageants which took place in celebration of the visits of royal personages. One pageant of an extraordinary character has been performed annually ever since the reign of Charles II. It is designed to commemorate a real or imaginary incident, which is thus related: Leofric, earl of Mercia, who possessed the property of the tolls and services of Coventry, exacted his dues so rigidly, that the inhabitants were greatly aggrieved, and at length Godiva, his pious wife, became their advocate. The earl, wearied by her solicitations, promised to grant her request, if she would ride naked through the town at mid-day. His terms, according to the legend, were accepted, and the countess rode through the town with no covering but her flowing tresses. It is added, that she had modestly commanded every person to keep within doors and away from the windows, on pain of death, but that one person could not forbear taking a glance, and lost his life for his curiosity. The procession commemorative of this occurrence includes the whole of the officials of the corporation, besides a female of easy purchase, who rides in a dress of linen closely fitted to her limbs and colored like them. The curious person who stole the glance is called "Peeping Tom," and a wooden image of him is to be seen on a house in the city.

Derby is a borough town in Derbyshire. It is built on the western bank of the river Derwent, over which there is a handsome stone bridge, and the river is navigable as far as the Trent. The derivation of the name of Derby has caused a good deal of controversy among antiquaries. The Saxons are said to have called it Northworthig, and the Danes, Deoraby; of the former appellation not a trace remains, but of the latter sufficient is retained in the present name of the town, to mark its origin. It is evidently derived from correspondent words in the British language, and refers to the situation of Derby on the banks of the river Derwent. Among the few historical events of distinguished importance recorded in the annals of this town, may be enumerated, its alternate possession by the Danes and the Saxons during the destructive conflict so long maintained for supremacy between those nations. In the year 874 it was occupied by the forces of Halfden, a Danish chief; they retained possession of it until the year 918, when they were attacked by surprise, and completely routed by Ethelfleda, princess of the Mercians. It was, however, shortly after retaken by the Danes, and they were again dispossessed by King Edmund. That Derby about this period was a place of great importance is evident from Domesday book, which mentions it as a royal borough of Edward the Confessor's, and that it contained fourteen mills for the grinding of corn, and two hundred and forty-three burgesses. The annual rent then paid was twenty-four pounds, two thirds of which belonged to the king, and the other to the earl of Mercia: tolls, forfeitures, and customs, were divided in the same way.

After the subjugation of England by William the Conqueror, Derby was bestowed on William Peveril, the natural son of William the Conqueror, with nearly the same emoluments as had been enjoyed by the Mercian earls, and many privileges were



New Buildings, Derby.

added to increase the population of the town. Henry I. granted Derby to the earl of Chester, and made it a corporate town. It also obtained various privileges in the reigns of Henry II., Richard I., and King John.

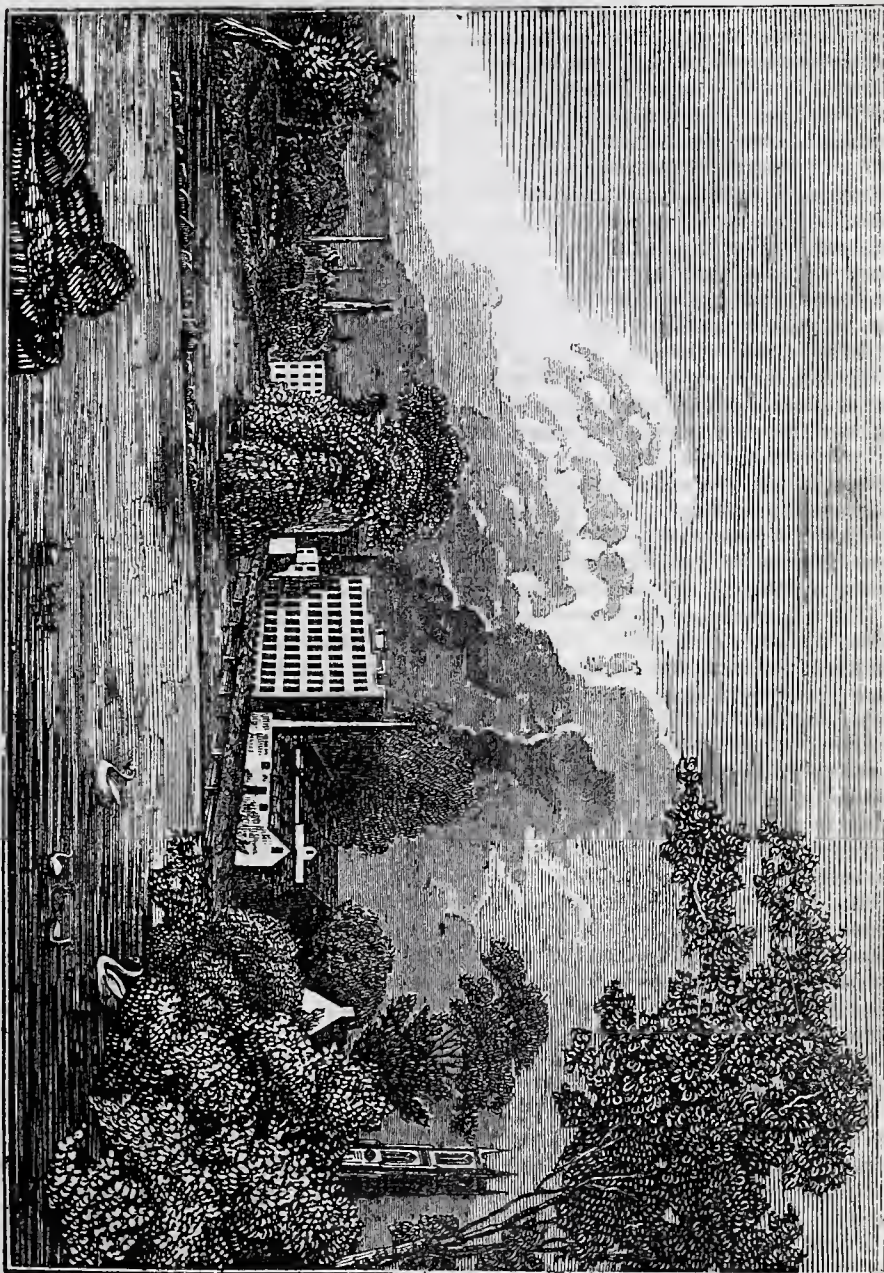
The plague has visited this town several times, and in the years 1592 and 1593 many hundreds of its inhabitants fell victims.

One of the most important events recorded in the annals of the last century, is the Scottish rebellion of the year 1745, when Derby became distinguished as the farthest place in England reached by the army of Prince Charles James Stuart, grandson of James II., who arrived at this town on the 4th of December. His appearance was not unexpected, and measures had been taken to provide for the safety of the inhabitants. Nearly six hundred men had been raised by a subscription of the gentlemen of the town and county, besides four hundred and fifty maintained at the sole expense of the duke of Devonshire. The day previous to the arrival of the Scottish army, these forces were reviewed, and went through their exercise so much to the general satisfaction, that the inhabitants were in high spirits, and their dread of the enemy's approach considerably diminished. Their terror, however, revived on hearing that the van guard of the prince's army was advancing toward Ashbourn, and the confusion was greatly increased by the orders given to the soldiers to leave the town and march for Nottingham. Distraction then appeared in every countenance, and several of the inhabitants having conveyed away their most valuable effects, departed from the town with the greatest speed. About eleven o'clock on the 4th, two of the van guard of the prince's army entered Derby, and proceeding directly to the George inn, demanded billets for nine thousand men, but being informed that the magistrates had left the place, they were satisfied; they then caused the prince to be proclaimed king. In a short time thirty more of their companions arrived under the command of Lord Balmerino, and drew up in the market-place, where about three they were joined by the rest of the corps under Lord Elcho, these constituted the prince's body guard, and being composed of the flower of his army, made a very imposing appearance. Soon after the main body marched into the town, six or eight abreast, they carried white standards with red crosses. About dusk the prince himself appeared. He was on foot, wearing a green bonnet laced with gold, and a Highland plaid and broad sword. He was attended by a large body of troops who conducted him to the residence of Lord Exeter, where he established his headquarters during his stay in Derby. He was attended by the dukes of Athol and Perth, Lord George Murray, Lord Balmerino, Lord Pitsligo, and a great number of other noblemen and gentlemen.

In the evening the chiefs of the prince's army held a council of war, when they determined on levying a contribution, and every person in Derby who had subscribed for the defence of the government, was obliged to pay a similar sum to the prince's army. To the honor of the prince and his army, little mischief was committed, a line of conduct which peculiarly distinguished these hastily-raised troops; for had the conduct of the individuals which composed them been as ferocious as that which disgraced the victorious party after the battle of Culloden, their footsteps would have been marked with blood.

On the evening of the second day was held another great council, when it was determined to return to the north. Early on the 6th their drums beat to arms, and about seven o'clock they commenced their retreat upon the Ashbourn road. The entire number of effective troops in the prince's army who entered this place may be estimated at eight thousand men.

The town of Derby contains five parishes, each of which has a church, the principal of which is dedicated to All Saints, the tower was erected in the reign of Henry VIII., it rises one hundred eighty feet, and contains many handsome monuments. There are several other places of worship of various denominations, besides charitable and useful institutions, in which the town of Derby is peculiarly rich. A county infirmary, on a very extensive scale, was established in this town in 1810, which is justly considered one of the most complete institutions of the kind in Europe. The ground plan is a square, each side extending about one hundred feet. There are several large baths, which are heated by steam; and in the most laborious departments of the establishment, such as washing, mangling, &c., the power of the same engine which pumps the water is employed as a prime mover. At a short distance from this edifice is a dépôt for ordnance, which was erected in 1803, with an armory in the centre capable of containing fifteen thousand stand of arms; there are also magazines



Sir Thomas Lombe's Silk-Mill, Derby.

for the accommodation of twelve thousand barrels of powder. The town-house is a handsome building, and the market-place is three hundred feet square.

Derby is the centre of one of the most productive and industrious districts in England, particularly as respects the manufacture of iron and other minerals. In the town and its neighborhood there are large manufactories of lace, galloons, broad silks, sill hosiery, china, marble, jewellery, &c.; several extensive mills and manufactories have been built within these few years, and the machinery is equal to that of any other part of the kingdom. The town is irregularly built, and excepting some new erections in the corn-market, an infirmary, and an old church, with an elegant and conspicuous tower, it owns no public building worthy of remark. Though placed in the midst of a stone district, the houses are as usual built of brick. Within the last few years, Derby has come prominently into notice by being on the line of the extended series of railways from Durham and Yorkshire to London, and the station here is of magnificent proportions: the distance from London, one hundred and twenty-six miles, is performed by railway in about seven hours. In 1840, the town received from Mr. Joseph Strutt the munificent gift of a pleasure ground, eleven acres in extent, and called by him the Arboretum. It is replenished with walks, seats, and every way fitted up for promenading and recreation; it is opened freely two days of the week to all classes, and on other days is accessible upon payment of a small fee. The population of Derby in 1831 amounted to 23,627.

Carlisle, which in early times was distinguished as a bulwark against the invasions of the Scottish armies, and as a cathedral city, has latterly acquired some note as a seat of manufactures, particularly in the department of cotton-spinning, calico-printing, and the weaving of ginghams, &c.

Carlisle is a large city in the county of Cumberland, pleasantly situated at the confluence of the rivers Eden and Caldén, the former of which, five miles lower down, falls into the Solway frieth. The name of this city appears to have been derived from the Saxon words *caer lyell*, that is, the city near the wall, from its contiguity to the great Roman wall, which stood within less than a quarter of a mile of it; the site of this monument of Roman industry is still very perceptible in the neighborhood.

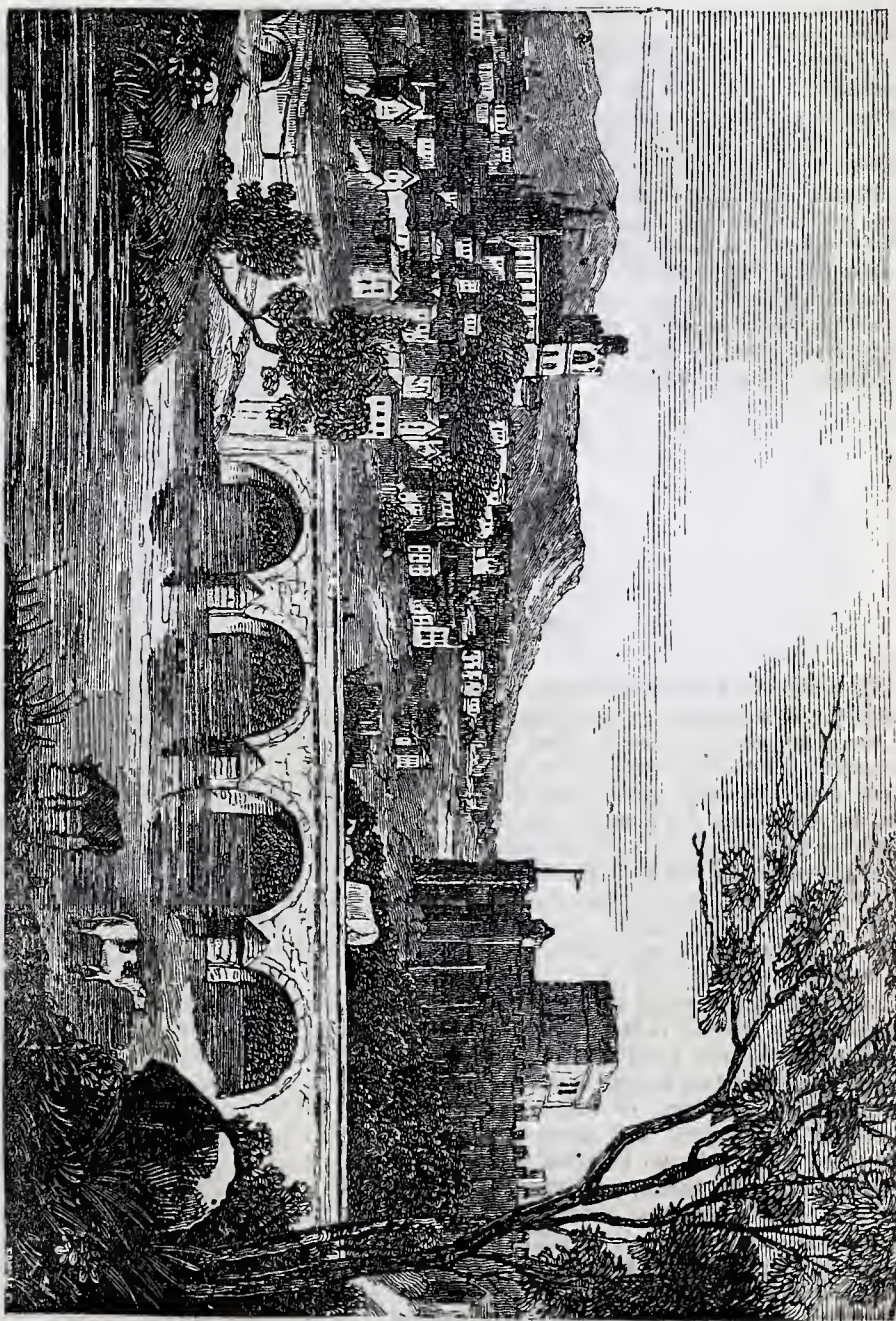
This city was a military post, possessing great strength, having a citadel and a castle, the latter situated so as to command the passage of the river Eden, on a slight eminence at the northwest extremity. The castle is still kept in repair, and contains, among other buildings, a magazine for gunpowder, and an excellent modern armory, capable of receiving ten thousand stand of arms, and generally containing about that number. A strong ancient keep remains, with a well of great depth, probably the work of the Romans. Mary, queen of Scotland, was imprisoned here in 1568; the suite of rooms in which she was confined is still shown, and the place of her promenade is still known by the name of the Ladies' Walk. The castle is said to have been first built in the seventh century by Egfrid, king of Northumberland; the walls are ascribed to William Rufus.

The cathedral, dedicated to the Holy Trinity, is a venerable structure, partly of Saxon and partly of Gothic architecture, containing, on the screens in the aisles, some singular and ridiculous legendary paintings of St. Augustine and St. Anthony, with a distich in uncouth language to each. Part of the western wing was demolished in the civil wars, at which period about ninety feet of the nave was pulled down to erect military works, among others a guardhouse in the centre of the market-place; the opening was afterward closed with a wall, and the space between the wall and the transept is now the parish church of St. Mary. The abbey attached to the cathedral was completed by Henry I., and Edward I. held a parliament in that part of it now called the frathy, while on his last expedition to Scotland in 1307.

In the year 1807, an act of parliament was obtained for erecting a court-house, and other necessary structures, on a very extensive scale, on the site of the old citadel.

A very large and handsome bridge over the Eden, nearly a quarter of a mile in length, built of white stone by Mr. Smirke, was finished in 1817, toward the expense of which parliament voted the sum of ten thousand pounds. The communication with Scotland and Ireland is much facilitated by the erection of this bridge.

There is a considerable trade carried on here, occupying about two fifths of the inhabitants. The manufactures chiefly consist of cotton, in all its branches, woollen, linen, leather, hats, hardware, &c.; there are several foundries, and also breweries, which produce a large quantity of malt liquor. The city has an excellent public li-



Carlisle.

brary, which was instituted in 1768, and it has been considerably improved within the last few years. The mayor and other officers of the corporation are chosen annually.

Carlisle is a very ancient place : there are abundant proofs that it flourished in the time of the Romans, who made it one of their most important military stations. The castle is supposed to have been a Roman fortress ; but all its original configuration is lost in subsequent alterations. In the time of Oliver Cromwell the keep was converted into a battery, and guns were mounted on the roof. The city and neighboring territory formed part of the Scottish dominions in the time of David I., who here conferred knighthood on Prince Henry, afterward Henry II., of England, in 1148. It participated in all the vicissitudes of the neighboring nations ; it was burnt intentionally by the Scots in the reign of Henry III., and twice by accident in that of Edward I. During the reign of Henry VIII. it was besieged by an army of eight thousand men. In 1644, it surrendered to General Lesly, commanding the parliamentary forces, and, a century afterward, was taken by the rebels in 1745, and retaken by the royal forces under the duke of Cumberland. Several of the unfortunate adherents of the house of Stuart were executed at Carlisle, on account of their exertions for its restoration. In the accompanying engraving we give a view of this city as seen from the north, with the castle and cathedral. A number of new buildings are continually rising, which give evident marks of the architectural taste and opulence of the inhabitants.

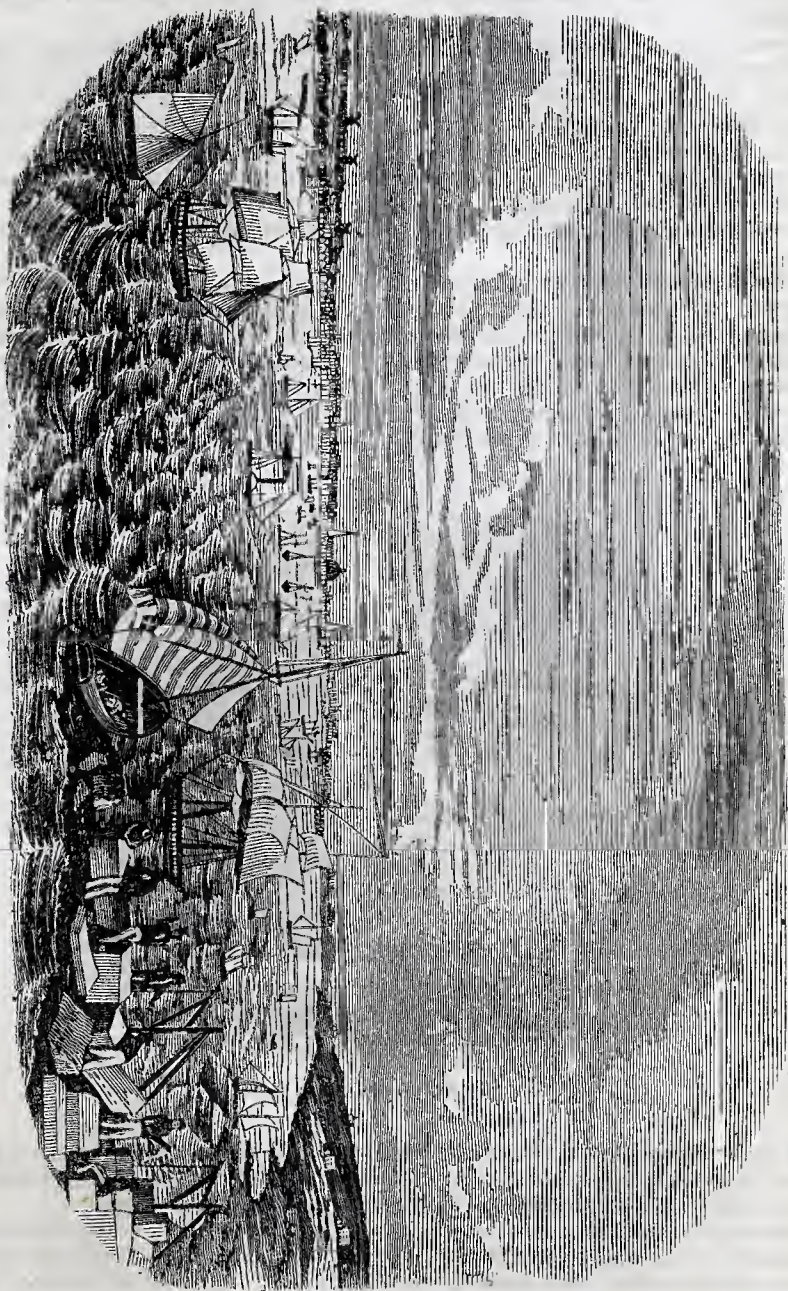
CHAPTER XVII.

COMMERCIAL TOWNS.

AT the head of this class stands Liverpool, next to London the greatest port in the empire. It is situated in Lancashire, on the east bank of the estuary of the Mersey, at the distance of thirty-six miles from Manchester, and two hundred and four from London. The town extends for about three miles along the Mersey, and rather more than one mile inland, the situation enjoying a slight slope toward the river. On the side next the country, the town extends into numerous suburban districts, comprehending many villas, the residences of the more wealthy citizens. Liverpool in 1831 contained 165,175 inhabitants ; but, inclusive of the immediate environs, and the persons engaged in navigation, the whole number is now believed to be not far from 300,000. Its rise has been surprisingly rapid. In the reign of Elizabeth it was only a small village ; in 1700, there were about 5,000 inhabitants ; in 1760, 26,000 ; and in 1801, 77,653.

Liverpool is the grand medium through which the trade of England with Ireland and with this country is carried on ; and a vast quantity of business is transacted by its merchants with the ports of the Mediterranean, East Indies, and other parts of the world. The leading article of import is the cotton so extensively used in the manufactures of Lancashire, of which, in 1830, out of seven hundred and ninety-three thousand six hundred and ninety-five bales imported into England, seven hundred and three thousand two hundred were brought into Liverpool. The rural produce of Ireland, cattle, bacon, poultry, eggs, &c., forms the import next in amount, the value in 1832 being about four and a half millions sterling. The duties paid at the customhouse of Liverpool, in 1837, were four millions three hundred and fifty-one thousand four hundred and ninety-six pounds, being about a fifth of those paid throughout the whole kingdom. In the same year, the vessels entered inward, exclusive of those concerned in the fisheries and coasting trade, were—British, 1,685 ; foreign, 985 ; in all, 2,670. Those entered outward were—British, 1,735 ; foreign, 1,012 ; in all, 2,747. But when the fisheries and coasting trade are included, the number of British vessels entering Liverpool that year reaches the amazing number of 10,281, each being upon an average of two hundred tons. Liverpool is the great outlet for the goods manufactured in Lancashire and Yorkshire for sale in America.

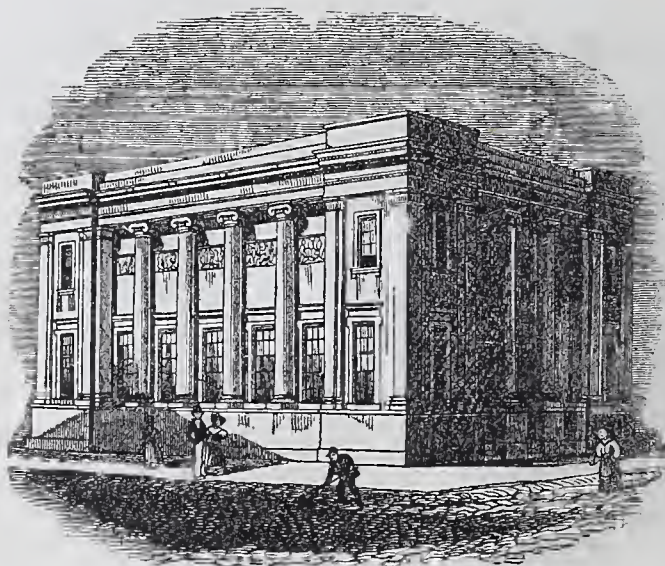
Liverpool.



It is stated, that one mercantile house in the American trade has in one year shipped and received goods to the amount of a million. In connexion with the commerce carried on with the United States, there is a large transit of passengers. This was formerly carried on by means of a periodical series of well-appointed and quick-sailing vessels, usually termed *liners*. There are also steam-vessels conveying passengers, daily, to and from Dublin, Glasgow, and several Welsh ports, and only a little less frequently to other Irish harbors, and to several ports in the southwest division of England.

The town, thus so extensively concerned in that commerce from which England derives its chief glory, presents many external features not unworthy of its mercantile character. Of these the chief is the *docks*, a magnificent series of deep-water harbors, extending along the whole front of the town. They are eleven in number, with an aggregate superficies of one hundred and eleven acres, and eight miles of quays! In the year ending June 24, 1840, the dues paid by vessels entering and leaving them was 197,477*l.* 18*s.* 6*d.* The sight of these docks, bristling with numberless masts, and a scene of constant bustle from loading and unloading, fills a stranger with astonishment.

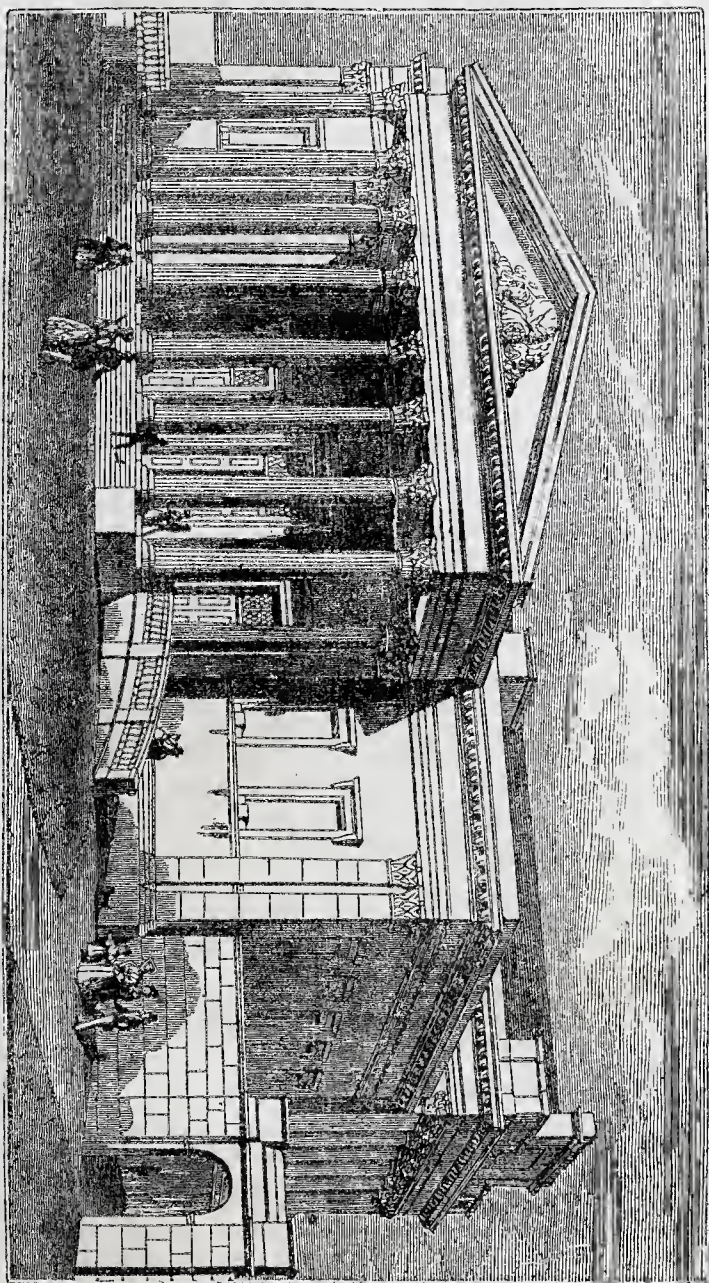
The town contains several handsome streets, the chief being Castle-street and Dale-street. The town hall and Exchange buildings form an elegant and impressive assemblage of objects, having a bronze group in the intermediate court, commemorative of the death of Lord Nelson. The customhouse is, as might be expected, a conspicuous edifice, but in a heavy style of architecture. The other public buildings—the Corn-Exchange, Lyceum, Athenæum, Wellington Rooms, Infirmary, Medical Institution, &c.—are goodly structures. There are upward of twenty churches be-



Medical Institution. Liverpool.

longing to the establishment, many of them of much architectural beauty; a greater number of chapels belonging to various denominations of dissenters; with four Roman Catholic chapels, a meetinghouse for quakers, and a Jews' synagogue.

The charitable institutions are numerous and well conducted. About fifteen hundred patients are admitted annually in the infirmary. The Blue-Coat hospital maintains and educates about two hundred boys and girls. The school for the blind is on a most extensive scale. A handsome and spacious theatre, and a circus, are open during great part of the year. At the Royal Liverpool Institution, public lectures are given; and attached to it is a philosophical apparatus and a museum of natural curiosities. A botanic garden was established in 1801, at the expense of about ten thousand pounds. There is also a mechanics' institution of unusual extent and elegance, having been erected at an expense of eleven thousand pounds. It in-



Victoria Rooms, Liverpool.

cludes schools for the young, as well as for the adolescent; and in the amount of its funds, and variety of the branches of knowledge taught, the establishment may be described as a kind of university for the middle and working classes of Liverpool. Among the remarkable objects connected with the town, the ornamental cemetery of St. James's, formed out of an old stone quarry, is worthy of particular notice. It contains a statue of Mr. Huskisson, who was interred in it.

Bristol, a large seaport town, is situated partly in the county of Somerset and partly in that of Gloucester, at the junction of the rivers Avon and Frome, and about ten miles from the junction of the former (which is navigable) with the Bristol channel. It is one of the few English towns which possess the dubiously acknowledged privilege of being counties in themselves, and it is also the cathedral city for the diocese of Bristol. Bristol is an ancient town, and has long enjoyed distinction as a seaport. Previous to the rise of Liverpool, to which it is now greatly inferior, it was the chief port of the west of England. It still possesses considerable trade, and has further of late years become the seat of some active and thriving manufactures. In 1837, three hundred eighty-six ships, of seventy-six thousand nine hundred and fifty-seven tons burden, entered the harbor from foreign ports, besides six hundred and thirty-two from Ireland: and in the same year, the customs duties collected were one million one hundred and fifty-three thousand one hundred and nine pounds. Sugar, rum, and tea, are the chief foreign imports, while the chief exports are the native manufactures, and cotton, woollen, and linen goods. The chief native manufactures are soap, glass bottles, various metallic wares, drugs, dyes, and soda. It is honorable to Bristol that, as in its ancient days of supereminency as a port, it sent out the first English vessel across the Atlantic (that of Cabot, which discovered North America), so, in these days, it was the first to establish a communication by steam with this continent. This was done in 1838, when the Great Western performed its first voyage. The population of Bristol, in 1831, was 117,016.

Bristol is a well-built town, containing many spacious streets and squares, and extending into several beautiful suburban villages, as Clifton, Kingsdown, and St. Michael's, where the residences of the wealthiest citizens are placed. The city contains many public structures of an interesting character. The cathedral is a fine old specimen of the Gothic architecture, and the church of St. Mary Redcliffe is considered one of the most beautiful in England. The "floating harbor," formed out of the ancient beds of the two rivers, and surrounded by an immense extent of quay, is a most impressive object: the cost of its construction was not much less than seven hundred thousand pounds. The guildhall, jail, Victoria rooms, commercial rooms and institution (which contains a library,* hall for lectures, &c.), are other public buildings of an elegant appearance. Clifton, being the site of a well-known hot well, contains a suite of baths and pump-rooms.

Newcastle-on-Tyne an ancient and prosperous seat of commerce, occupies a somewhat inconvenient situation on the left or north bank of the Tyne, at the distance of about ten miles from the sea. It is locally in the county of Northumberland, and by means of a bridge across the Tyne, is connected with the populous borough of Gateshead, in the county of Durham. It owes the origin of its name to Robert, the eldest son of William the conqueror, who erected a fortress on the high bluff which here overhangs the river, and gave it the name of Newcastle. For ages the town was surrounded by strong walls, as a protection against invading Scottish armies: these, however, have disappeared, and in modern times the town has spread over the irregular acclivities and upland which border the river. The old fort or castle still exists, also the ancient Gothic church of St. Nicholas, whose elegant turret is conspicuous at a considerable distance. The main cause of the increasing importance of Newcastle is its fortunate situation in the midst of the great coal-field of Northumberland and Durham, the produce of which finds a ready outlet by the Tyne. The plentifulness of coal has led to the establishment of numerous manufactures, among which are numbered cast and wrought iron, machinery, lead, glass, chymical productions, pottery, soap, and glue. The number of vessels, British and foreign, which entered the port in 1838, was 1,835, with a burden of 242,004 tons. The gross receipts at the customhouse for the same year were £379,360. The older parts of the town near the river exhibit a busy scene of industry; here are crowded together ship and boat building yards, wharfs or vessels, iron foundries and machine manufactories, and all the usual works connected with a great seaport. The streets in this quarter are dirty and smoky, but other parts of the town are of great elegance. Since 1834,

by the extraordinary energy and taste of Mr. Richard Grainger, a speculating architect, a large portion of the town has been taken down and rebuilt with handsome stone houses, amid which are various public buildings, including a theatre, an exchange, extensive markets, &c. Newcastle must be considered the metropolis of a rich and populous district, including Tynemouth, North and South Shields (all at the mouth of the Tyne), Sunderland, Durham, and Gateshead; and with these it is intimately connected by means of the river, railways, or otherwise. At Shields and Sunderland, are the great dépôts of shipping in the coal and other trades. Besides its remarkable manufacturing and commercial industry, Newcastle is distinguished for its philosophical and literary institutions, no other town of its kind possessing so many inhabitants of cultivated taste. In 1831, including the population of Gateshead, which was 15,177, Newcastle and its suburbs had a population of 68,790; but at present it is estimated at 100,000.

Hull (properly Kingston-upon-Hull) is situated at the confluence of the river Hull with the estuary of the Humber, in the east riding of Yorkshire, of which district it is the principal town. It commands an extraordinary amount of inland navigation, not only by means of the Trent, Ouse, Derwent, and other branches of the Humber, but by means of canals connecting with those streams, and penetrating to the very heart of England. It is the principal outlet for the manufactures of York and Lancashire toward the continent of Europe, the chief seat of the northern whale fishery, and one of the most important stations for steam-navigation in the island, having packets of that kind voyaging not only to London, Newcastle, Leith, and Aberdeen, besides many inland places in its own district, but to Rotterdam, Hamburg, and occasionally to some of the ports in what is more particularly called the north of Europe. Hull was a noted port so early as the reign of Edward I.; and in the seventeenth century it was a great state dépôt for arms, on which account the possession of it in the time of the civil war became an object of much importance. The refusal of its governor, Sir John Hotham, to give it up at that time to Charles I., or even to admit his majesty within the gates, is a conspicuous incident in English history. For some years, owing to various circumstances, some branches of the port have experienced a decline rather than an advance; but it is still a town of large trade. In 1829, 579 vessels, of 72,248 aggregate tonnage, belonged to Hull. For the accommodation of the shipping there is a splendid range of docks, presenting an amount of quayage said to measure 60,000 square yards, and with all the suitable accommodations for storing a vast quantity of merchandise. The population of the town is about 50,000.

Chester is one of the less important and less populous of the commercial towns of England. Such importance, however, as it possesses as a commercial town, is enhanced by its being a county town and cathedral city, and the residence of a considerable number of persons in independent circumstances. It is also remarkable for its antiquity and its historical associations, as well as for some local features of an unusual kind. It is situated within a bend of the Dee, a few miles from the point where that river joins an estuary branching from the Irish channel. The two principal streets cross each other at right angles, and the town is still surrounded by the massive walls which were originally designed to protect it from warlike aggression, but are now only useful as an agreeable promenade, from which some pleasant views of the surrounding country may be obtained. The streets are formed in hollows, dug out of rock, so that the lowest floor of each house is under the level of the ground behind, though looking out upon the carriage way in front. The paths for passengers are not here, as is usually the case, formed in lateral lines along the streets, but in a piazza running along the front of what in England is called the first, and in Scotland more correctly the second floor of the houses. These piazzas, called in Chester the *Rous*, are accessible from the street by stairs at convenient distances. There are numerous shops entered from them, and they in some places still retain the massive wooden balustrades with which all were originally furnished, but for which, in other places, light iron railings have been substituted. Where the houses and balustrades are old, the effect is very curious and striking, and apt to awaken ideas of ancient usages and habits long passed away. The cathedral of Chester contains some curious ancient architecture. The castle is a splendid modern building, on the site of the powerful fortress which was once of such importance as a check upon the Welsh; it contains the county courthouse, jail, &c. The principal other buildings are the halls built by the merchants to serve as marts, of which there



Market Place, Hull.

are three, beside the exchange. The bridge across the Dee is a remarkable object, being of one arch, with a span of two hundred feet. It cost 40,000*l*.

Chester was an important station of the Romans, from whom it derived the cross form of its two principal streets, and of whom relics have from time to time been dug up. It retained its importance during Saxon and Norman times, and in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries was a flourishing city, with a large maritime trade. It then declined, in consequence of natural obstructions to the navigation of the river. From the year 1328 downward, it was remarkable for the annual performance of a peculiar class of theatrical representations, similar to those performed at Coventry, and termed *Mysteries*. To modern taste these would seem the most gross burlesque of sacred subjects; but so convinced were the clergy of those days of their edifying qualities, that a thousand days of pardon from the pope, and forty from the bishop of Chester, were granted to all who attended them. After a long period of declension, the trade of Chester was revived by the cutting of a new channel for the river, whereby vessels of six hundred tons burden were enabled to come to the quays near the town. The commerce, with the exception of a few ships which visit Spain, Portugal, the Mediterranean, and the Baltic, is chiefly confined to Ireland, whence an immense quantity of linen, hemp, flax, skins, and provisions, is imported. The exports of Chester are cheese (the staple production of the county), lead, coal, calamine, copper-plates, and cast-iron. Ship-building is carried on to a considerable extent, and there are some manufactures of inferior consequence. The population of Chester in 1831 was 21,363.

Southampton is an ancient but considerably modernized town, the capital of Hampshire, and, next to Portsmouth and Plymouth, may be considered the chief outpost on the south coast. It enjoys a situation at once pleasant and convenient, in a vale adjoining to the bay bearing its own name. In modern times, the town has been greatly improved and increased by the erection of lines of handsome streets in the environs, the residence of a respectable and leisurely population. Among the attractions of the neighborhood are those of the New Forest, which almost adjoins the town, and a beach forming a pleasant bathing-place in summer; few seaside towns are more salubrious or agreeable. With the Isle of Wight at a few miles distance, there is a constant communication by steamboats. The southwestern railway, which terminates near the shore of the bay, has greatly advanced the interests of the town, by making it a *dépôt* of traffic in connexion with the metropolis; and there are now constructing, at a great cost, large wet-docks and wharves for shipping. A considerable trade is already carried on with foreign countries, and the port is a main point of communication between England, Guernsey, Jersey, and Havre, in which, and some other respects, it is a rising rival of the neighboring town of Portsmouth. The population in 1831 was 19,324.

CHAPTER XVIII.

UNIVERSITY TOWNS.

OXFORD, the capital of the rich midland county of Oxford, is one of the most ancient cities in England. The origin of its name and foundation is involved in much uncertainty, but it has for ages been celebrated for its university, which, in extent, number of colleges, wealth of endowments, and architectural beauty, stands unrivalled by any similar institution in Europe. This seat of learning is situated on a gentle eminence in a rich valley, between the rivers Cherwell and Isis, and is surrounded by highly-cultivated scenery, the prospect being bounded on the east, south, and west, by an amphitheatre of hills. From the neighboring heights the city presents a very imposing appearance, from the number and variety of its spires, domes, and other public edifices; while these structures, from their magnitude and splendid architecture, give it, on a nearer approach, an air of great magnificence. The city, properly so called, which was formerly surrounded by a wall, is of an oval form, and

about two miles in circumference. The wall had bastions 150 feet distant from each other, though but few traces of them now remain. The city has, however, expanded beyond its ancient limits, and now includes, with its suburbs, a circuit of three miles. On entering the city from the east, south, and west, the respective rivers are crossed by bridges. Magdalen bridge is an elegant stone building over the Cherwell. The bridge over the Isis, on the west, consists of three substantial arches. On the south is another bridge over the same river, on which, till lately, stood a lofty tower, termed Friar Bacon's study.

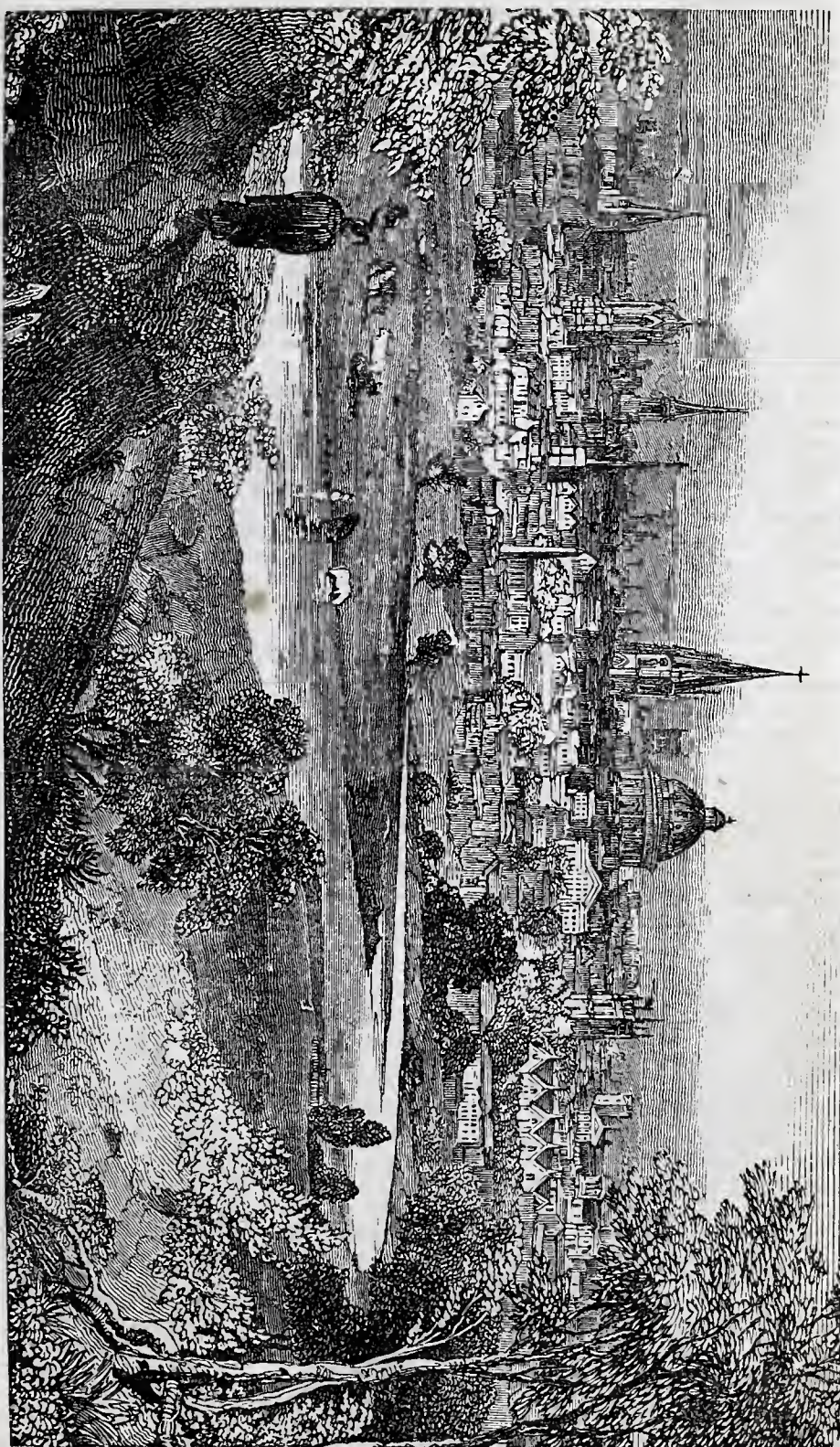
The High-street extends westward, under different names, the whole length of the city. From Carfax church it is crossed at right angles by St. Giles, the other principal street; and from the High-street and St. Giles branch nearly every other street in the city. The High-street of Oxford is justly considered the finest in England, from its length and breadth, for the number and elegance of its public buildings, and from its remarkable curvature, which, from continually presenting new combinations of magnificent objects to the eye, produces an uncommonly striking effect. From Carfax church the High-street loses its name and diminishes in width, and declines also in the splendor of its collegiate embellishments. St. Giles street, in many parts, may be said to equal the High-street both in width and architecture. The minor streets are less spacious, and in many of them the houses are crowded together. There are, however, many other handsome streets, especially among those of recent erection.

Of the public buildings and institutions, the university claims the first notice, and we will, therefore, proceed to give a brief view of the principal colleges, many of which are edifices of great architectural skill and beauty.

Queen's college is a splendid modern structure on the right hand of the High-street, and opposite to University college. The whole area on which it is built forms an oblong square of three hundred feet in length, and two hundred and twenty in breadth, which is divided by the chapel and hall into two spacious courts. The foundation-stone of the south court or quadrangle was laid on the 6th of February, 1710, the birthday of Queen Anne, by Dr. William Lancaster, provost. It is one hundred and forty feet in length, by one hundred and thirty in breadth, having a lofty cloister, supported by square pillars on the east, west, and south sides. Over the west cloister are two stories, containing the apartments of the fellows, the provost's lodgings, and a gallery communicating with the hall and common room. In the east are also apartments for the different members of the society; and on the north are the chapel and hall. The south part presents to the street the lateral fronts of the east and west sides, with their pediments and statues, which are connected by a decorated wall, enriched with a central gateway, or grand entrance, above whose arch rises an open cupola, containing the statue of Queen Caroline, the consort of George II. The north side is occupied by a grand Doric elevation. It consists of an enriched central pediment, supported by four lofty columns, with their appropriate entablatures, flanked by the chapel and hall, with large windows finishing in a circle, and pilasters between them. The whole is crowned with a balustrade and an elegant cupola, of the Ionic order. This quadrangle possesses, when viewed from the High-street, a general resemblance to the palace of the Luxembourg in Paris. On the front of this college are six figures; the two on pediments are Jupiter and Apollo; the remaining four are subjects emblematical of Mathematics, Geography, Medicine, and Religion.

Hawksmoor is the nominal architect of this college; but from its superiority to his other works, the design has been referred to his great master, Sir Christopher Wren. The interior court, or north quadrangle, is one hundred and thirty feet in length, and ninety in breadth. The north, east, and south sides contain apartments for the society, and the library occupies the west. The entrance to it is through a passage between the hall and chapel.

Very considerable sums had been given, and bequests made, toward the building of this college; but, from various causes, they were not found sufficient to complete it. To forward this object, Queen Caroline, who was herself an admirer of learning, gave, in the year 1733, one thousand pounds; and the east side was chiefly built by the bounty of John Michel, Esq. Early in the morning of December 18, 1778, a fire broke out in the attic chamber in the staircase, adjoining to the provost's lodgings; and in a few hours the west wing of the front quadrangle was destroyed, the shell only remaining. Toward the repairs of the edifice, injured by this sudden and vio-



Oxford, from the Abingdon Road.

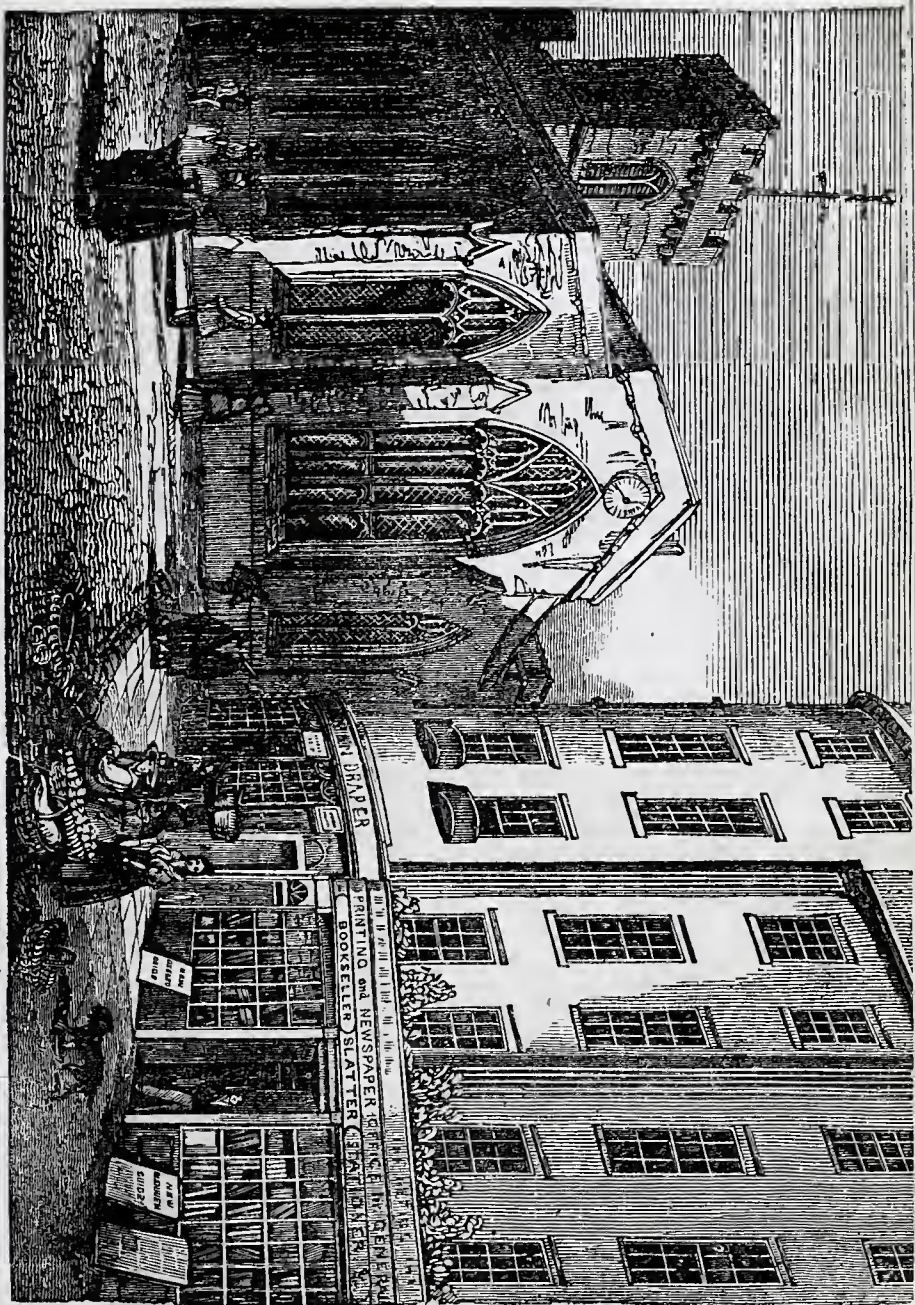
lent conflagration, Queen Charlotte was pleased to subscribe one thousand pounds. The society also received voluntary contributions from many distinguished persons, collegiate bodies, and others, toward the reconstruction of the building. The hall is sixty feet long and thirty broad, with an arch of proportionate height, and decorated with the Doric order. The chimney-piece is of marble, on which stands a bust of Aristotle, generally said to be a likeness of Bonaparte. This room is furnished with various portraits in the windows and on the walls.

The library of this college is a large and noble apartment, completed in 1694. It is about one hundred and twenty-three feet in length, and thirty in breadth. The bookcases are delicately carved, and the ceiling enriched with compartments in stucco. This fine room is ornamented with a large orrery, given by six gentlemen commoners, belonging to the college, in 1763 : a cast of the Florentine boar, in plaster of Paris, presented by Sir Roger Newdigate ; and two ancient portraits on glass of Henry V. and Cardinal Beaufort, presented to the society by Alderman Fletcher. The elegant entrance door is of stone, and of the Corinthian order. Over it are the portraits of the founder and Dr. Lancaster ; on the west side are others of Bishop Barlow, Potter, Langbaine, Dr. Halton, Dr. Fothergill, Edward IV., &c. At the north end are Queen Charlotte, Charles I., a much-admired portrait of Fuller, the painter, taken by himself when in a state of intoxication, and a curious portrait, supposed to be that of the member of this college who killed the wild boar in Shotover forest. The library contains upward of eighteen thousand volumes.

The chapel, the interior of which is of the Corinthian order, is one hundred feet long and thirty broad. The windows, removed from the old chapel, were all painted by Van Linge in 1636, and repaired by Price in 1715, with the exception of four, which are supposed to have been executed three centuries ago, and which still retain much of their original brilliance. The foundation of this chapel was laid in 1713-'14, and dedicated in 1719. The ceiling is decorated with the painting of the Ascension by Sir James Thornhill.

University College is remarkable for its antiquity. It is entered by a large quadrangle, a hundred feet square, which presents a noble appearance. The chapel and hall, on the south side, have undergone considerable characteristic and judicious alterations, after the designs of Dr. Griffith, a former master. These have been effected by lengthening the windows, by the addition of buttresses, battlements, and pinnacles, and by changing the former clumsy centre into an elegant Gothic bow-window and pediment. Above the gateway are two statues—that on the outside represents Queen Anne, and the other on the inner side James II. The latter was presented to the society by a Roman catholic, when Mr. Obadiah Walker was master. The hall was begun in 1640 ; but, in consequence of the unsettled state of the university during the usurpation of Oliver Cromwell, it was not completed till the reign of Charles II. In the year 1766, its interior received considerable alterations and improvements. The fireplace in the centre of the room was removed, and a chimney erected on the south side. The roof was ceiled, the wainscot put up, a screen erected at the lower end, the floor newly paved, and the whole ornamented in the Gothic style. The expense, which amounted to near twelve hundred pounds, was defrayed by the contributions of the master and fellows, and many others who had been, or were then members of the society.

The library of this college is on the south side, beyond the principal quadrangle, and was finished in 1699. It contains many valuable manuscripts and printed books. The chapel was completed in 1665. The east window is of painted glass : the Nativity by Henry Giles, of York. It was the gift of Dr. Radcliffe, in 1687. The inner roof, which was formerly of wood, having been removed for the purpose of repairing the timber of the roof, has been replaced by a handsome, groined, Gothic ceiling. The screen is beautifully composed of the Corinthian order, with its enrichments, and is exquisitely carved by Grinlin Gibbons. The altar-piece is a copy of the *Salvator Mundi* of Carlo Dolce, executed by Dr. Griffith, the late master. The carved work over the altar is of most beautiful workmanship. Near the altar, on the south side, is a monument by Flaxman, in memory of Dr. Nathan Wetherell, who presided over this college during the long period of forty-four years. The wainscot of the ante-chapel has been removed, and an arch formed at the west end, to receive a monument to the memory of the celebrated Sir William Jones, formerly a fellow of this college. It was executed by Flaxman, and the bas-relief represents Sir William in the act of translating and forming a digest of Hindoo laws from the sacred books,



Upper part of High Street, Oxford, with a View of Carfax Church.

or vedas, which the Bramins appear to be reading to him. This memorial was originally designed by Lady Jones to be sent to Calcutta; but the East-India company having determined to erect one there at their own expense, it was presented to this college, and that which it was meant should be placed here by the friends of Sir William Jones, was transferred to the University church. Under the window in the ante-chapel is another fine monument, also by Flaxman, to the memory of Sir Robert Chambers, a member of this college, the gift of Lady Chambers.

Merton college is entered by an embattled tower, erected in the early part of the fifteenth century. The subject of the ancient sculpture over the centre of the gate is, by some antiquaries, believed to be the history of St. John the Baptist, and a relic of the church dedicated to that saint. The statues under the rich Gothic canopies are those of King Henry III. and the founder.

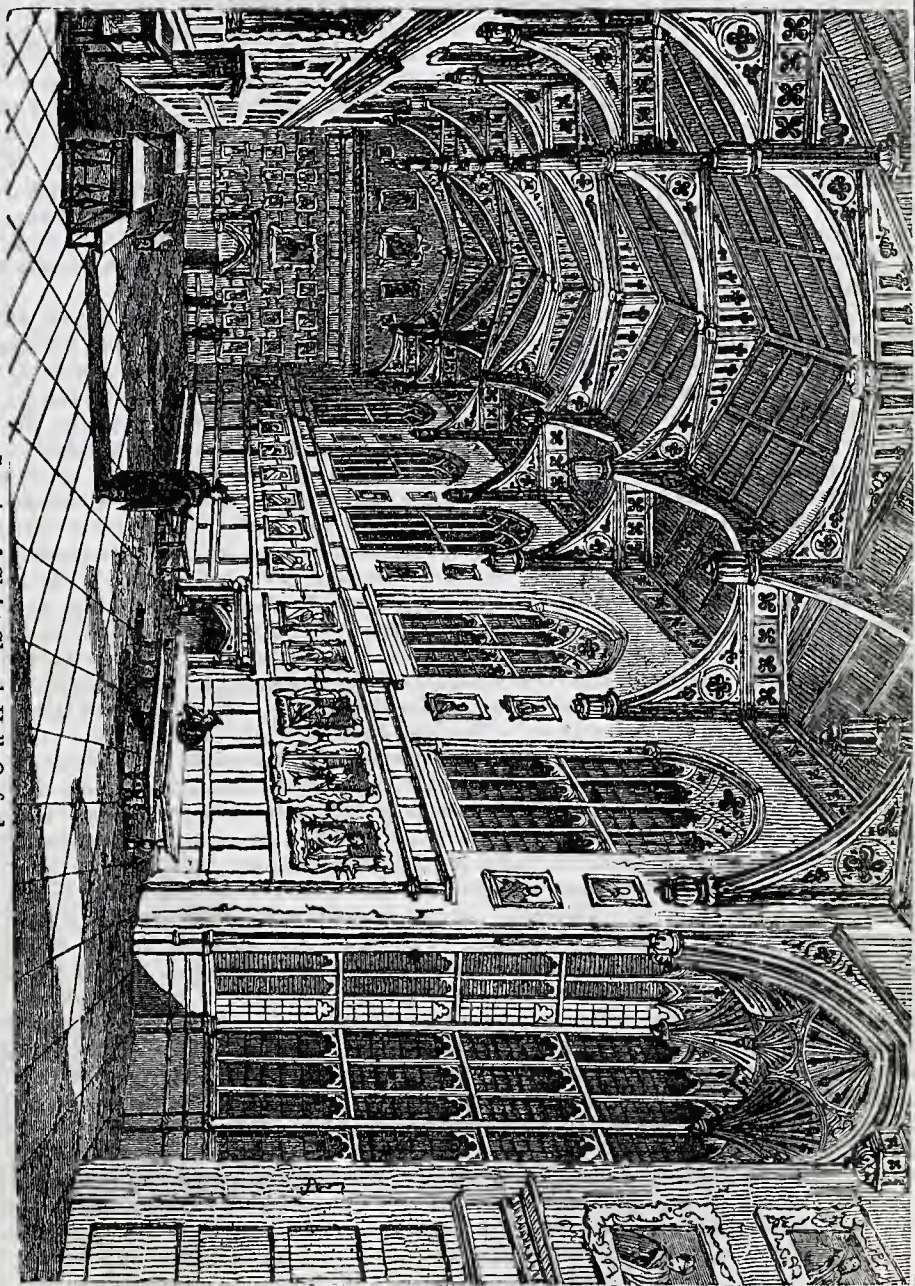
The first quadrangle is formed by the east end of the chapel, part of the hall, the warden's lodgings, and apartments for the members. The second quadrangle is one hundred and ten feet by one hundred. At the south end of it is the entrance into the gardens, in which is a fine terrace formed on part of the city wall, whence there is a view of Merton Fields and the Wide Walk of Christ church. Part of the south end of this quadrangle has lately been repaired, and the architectural ornaments over the garden gateway restored.

The chapel of this college is particularly deserving of notice. The ante-chapel, for more than one hundred and fifty years, was wainscotted with very old and beautifully carved wood-work, in the Grecian and Gothic styles, taken, it is supposed, from the inner chapel. At each end were two large screens, which in part prevented the sight of the beautiful windows, and entirely hid the architecture of the north entrance, and a very ancient and curious monument, erected in catholic times, at the south end. On removing these wainscots and screens, one of the wedges having been drawn from the wall, showed the lower part of a small column of stone, which induced an opinion that the same column supported an arch on each side of the grand west window. This conjecture proved correct, for Mr. Evans discovered, and has since, with the approbation of the college, displayed to view two beautiful arches, supported by columns, forming altogether a complete body of grand columns to support the tower of this chapel; and, were one other improvement to take place—were the architect's original design restored by removing the ceiling which now forms a belfry—it would display an ancient and well-conceived roof of superb Gothic carved work unequalled in this university.

This chapel exhibits some very singular specimens of Gothic architecture. The north window, in the ante-chapel, contains two ranges of seven lights; the windows of the choir display no common splendor of painted glass, in the representation of saints, martyrs, and associated decorations; but the great object of interest in this chapel is the eastern window, which possesses uncommon beauty, from the proportion of its parts, the fancy of its tracery, and the attractive effect of its whole design. It is a most exquisite specimen of fine taste, and is called the Catharine Wheel window, one of the only three now in England. From its situation in this chaste and perfect Gothic chapel, it may certainly be considered as the finest in the kingdom; although it is said by some artists that its height is not in due proportion with its breadth. Its paintings, which represent the principal events of the life of Christ, in six compartments, were executed in the year 1700 by W. Price.

Worcester college is situated on the banks of the Isis, at the western extremity of the university. On entering the college, the visiter is struck by the contrast between the old buildings on the west and the elegant new buildings opposite. The new buildings were finished in 1756. At the eastern end are the chapel, library, and hall. The latter is ornamented with fluted Corinthian columns; and at the upper end, is a fine painting of a Dutch fish-market, the fish by Snyders; over the fireplace is a whole-length portrait of Sir Thomas Cooke, the founder, by Sir Godfrey Kneller; and in other parts of the hall are portraits of Dr. Clarke, Dr. Eaton, &c.

Christ Church is the largest and most magnificent foundation in Oxford, and owes its origin to Cardinal Wolsey, who, in 1524 and 1525, obtained a bull from the pope, authorizing him to suppress twenty-two inferior priories and nunneries, and apply their revenues in support of the intended college. The original plan of this foundation provided for one hundred and sixty persons, who were to apply themselves to the study of the sciences at large, as well as to polite literature. The cardinal settled on this society a clear annual revenue of two thousand pounds, and commenced the



Interior of Christ Church Hall, Oxford.

present building for the use of the members under the name of "Cardinal's College." After his disgrace and death, the king, who had in the first instance seized its revenues and arrested its progress, was induced to patronise the institution, and re-endowed it for the support of a dean and twelve canons, under the name of "King Henry the Eighth's College."

The hall of this college was built by Wolsey, and strikes every eye with its magnificence, the grandeur of its proportions, and the propriety of its ornaments. It is unrivalled as a refectory by any room in the kingdom. In the reign of Charles I. the present approach was built, but the name of the architect is not known; the vaulted roof is supported by a single pillar in the centre of a square, and by groins at the angles. The new staircase and lobby were opened in 1800. The roof of the hall is highly ornamented, and the large window at the upper end of the south side is suited to its position, and very much admired for its fine-carved Gothic canopy. This stately apartment is one hundred and fifteen feet in length, forty in breadth, and fifty in height, and, taking in the lobby, &c., is one hundred and eighty feet long. In 1801, two new Gothic chimney-pieces were erected in this room by order of the dean, Dr. Jackson, from a plan of Mr. Wyatt. They are made of Somersetshire stone, and are considered very appropriate ornaments of the hall.

As Christ Church has ever claimed the honor of receiving their monarchs when they went to Oxford, this hall has consequently been the scene of those entertainments which have been prepared to do honor to, or promote the amusement of, the royal visitors. Henry VIII. in 1533, Queen Elizabeth in 1566 and 1592, James I. in 1605, and Charles I. several times, were splendidly entertained in this room. In the year 1814, George IV., then prince regent, dined here with Prince Metternich.

Very near the hall is the kitchen, which is often visited by strangers. In it is a very large and curious gridiron, which is supported by four wheels. It was used for dressing whole joints, before ranges and spits were invented. The kitchen was the first part of the college that was completed, and still retains its original appearance.

The chapel of this college, which is also the cathedral of the diocese, is the same which belonged to the priory of St. Frideswide, where that saint and her parents were entombed. It is built in the shape of a cross, with a spire in the middle. The tower contains ten bells, which formerly belonged to Osney Abbey. The length of the chapel, from east to west, is one hundred and fifty-four feet. The length of the transept, from north to south, is one hundred and two feet. The height of the western part is forty-one and a half feet. The breadth of the nave and side aisles is fifty-four feet; and the height of the steeple one hundred and forty-four feet. Five monuments of great antiquity are still remaining in this chapel, or more properly church. The first, which is under the great window in the north transept, was erected to the memory of James Zouch, who died in 1503. The four other tombs are between the respective arches, dividing the Divinity or Latin chapel from the middle north aisle. The first of these displays a man in armor, and is reported to belong to Sir Henry de Bathe, who died in 1252. The next beyond is supposed to contain the remains of Guymond, a prior, who died about 1149. The next monument is that of the lady Elizabeth Montacute, wife to William Baron Montacute, ancestor of the Montacutes, earls of Salisbury. She was buried here in 1353. The last of these tombs is the shrine of St. Frideswide. This is a neat and elegant structure erected over a tomb, which had on it the effigy of a man and woman in brass, now torn off, said to have been the parents of the saint. She died in the year 740, on October 19th, which day is commemorated by a fair kept before the gates of the college. The monument of Robert Burton, the author of the *Anatomy of Melancholy*, who was a member of this college, is in this part of the church. These monuments of a later date may be considered as an obituary of many of the most distinguished members of this society. There are also several monuments erected to the memory of eminent persons who died in Oxford when Charles I. held his court at Christ Church.

Nearly all the windows of this cathedral were destroyed in 1651. Those that remain, with others executed since, are—the Story of Jonah, in the south aisle; the Destruction of Sodom and Gomorrah; and Christ disputing with the doctors, in the east window of the divinity chapel, by Van Linge. The Nativity, in the east window, is by Price, from a design of Sir James Thornhill. The window in the north aisle, representing St. Peter conducted out of prison by the angel, was painted in 1700, by Isaac Oliver, when he was eighty-four years of age. The centre west window has lately been repaired, and embellished with ancient and very curious painted glass,

representing St. Frideswide, St. Catharine, and other saints. In the centre part of the great window in the north transept, is the representation of the murder of Becket, archbishop of Canterbury, which has the appearance of great antiquity. The other windows contain a great variety of arms, crests, devices, &c., some of them collected and given by the late Alderman Fletcher, a few years since. The window which has a portrait of Bishop King, contains a curious view of the south elevation of Osney Abbey. There is a fine-toned organ in the church, where service is performed every morning and evening, and sermons are preached in the nave, before the university—on Good Friday, Ascension day, Christmas day, and whenever it is the turn of the dean or either of the canons to preach. The church has lately been new roofed, and the interior has undergone many alterations and repairs. The stone roof in the choir is much admired. The richly ornamented sacramental plate is very ancient. The pulpit is also very old, and of curious workmanship. In this chapel is placed a very fine statute of Dr. Cyril Jackson, dean from 1783 to 1809, when he retired from his arduous situation: he died August 31, 1819. It is executed by Chantrey, from the excellent likeness in the hall, by Owen.

The common room, which is under the hall, contains portraits of Henry VIII., of Drs. Busby, Freind, Nicoll, and Archbishop Markham, of Dean Aldrich, and Dr. Frewin; and a bust of Dr. Busby, by Rysbrach.

In the court, which is entered by a narrow passage, in the southern part of the great quadrangle, and adjoining the common room, is the grammar school, where the choristers and other boys are educated. Opposite the grammar school is the anatomical theatre, which was begun in the year 1776, and finished partly with the benefaction of Dr. Freind, who died in 1728, leaving one thousand pounds toward promoting the study of anatomy; and partly with the legacy of Dr. M. Lee, who by his will endowed the lectureship, and was in other respects a great benefactor to the college. This is a handsome convenient building, and is well furnished with subjects, preserved in spirits, to illustrate the study of anatomy.

In order to complete our account of this college, we must return into the great quadrangle, pass under the northeast arch, which is opposite the hall entrance, and proceed to the quadrangle, called Peckwater, which derives its name from an ancient hall or inn which stood on the southwest corner of the present court, and was the property of Richard Peckwater, who gave it to St. Frideswide's priory, in the reign of Henry III. About the middle of the reign of Henry VIII. another inn, called Vine Hall, was added to it; these, with other buildings, were formed into a quadrangle, in the time of Dean Duppa and Dr. S. Fell, which remained until 1705, when the east, west, and north sides were rebuilt after a plan given by Dean Aldrich, at the expense of the dean, canons, and nobility and gentry educated in this society. Anthony Radcliffe, canon, bequeathed three thousand pounds for this purpose.

The three sides are in a chaste Ionic style; all superfluity of ornament has been judiciously rejected, and it may be said to be one of the most correct examples of the Palladian architecture in England.

The library, which forms the south side of Peckwater quadrangle, was begun in 1716, after a design of Dr. George Clarke, of All Souls, and was not completed until 1761. The elevation consists of one order of three-quarter Corinthian columns, of considerable height and diameter. It was originally intended that the lower story should consist of an open piazza of seven arches, with an ascent of three steps along the front of the building; but it was afterward enclosed, and forms the rooms which contain some books and the collection of paintings left to the college by Brigadier-General Guise, who had received a part of his education in it.

The upper room is one hundred and forty-one feet by thirty, and thirty-seven feet in height. The ceiling is richly ornamented; and the wainscot and pillars are of the finest Norway oak. The festoons of stucco are much admired for the delicacy of the workmanship. This library, in books, prints, manuscripts, and coins, is of the first order. The recesses in the upper room are occupied by a bust, in bronze, of Marcus Modius, a physician, presented to the society by Lord Frederick Campbell; and a female figure, in marble, attended by a smaller figure of a boy, with one hand upon her shoulder, given by the late A. K. Mackenzie, M. A., a student of this house. This fine antique statue was found at Pella in Greece. At the east end are marble busts of Seneca and Nero; and at the other end, of Ceres and Cicero. On the staircase is a fine whole length statue of Locke, by Roubilliac.

Canterbury quadrangle joins that of Peckwater on the east side, and is a handsome

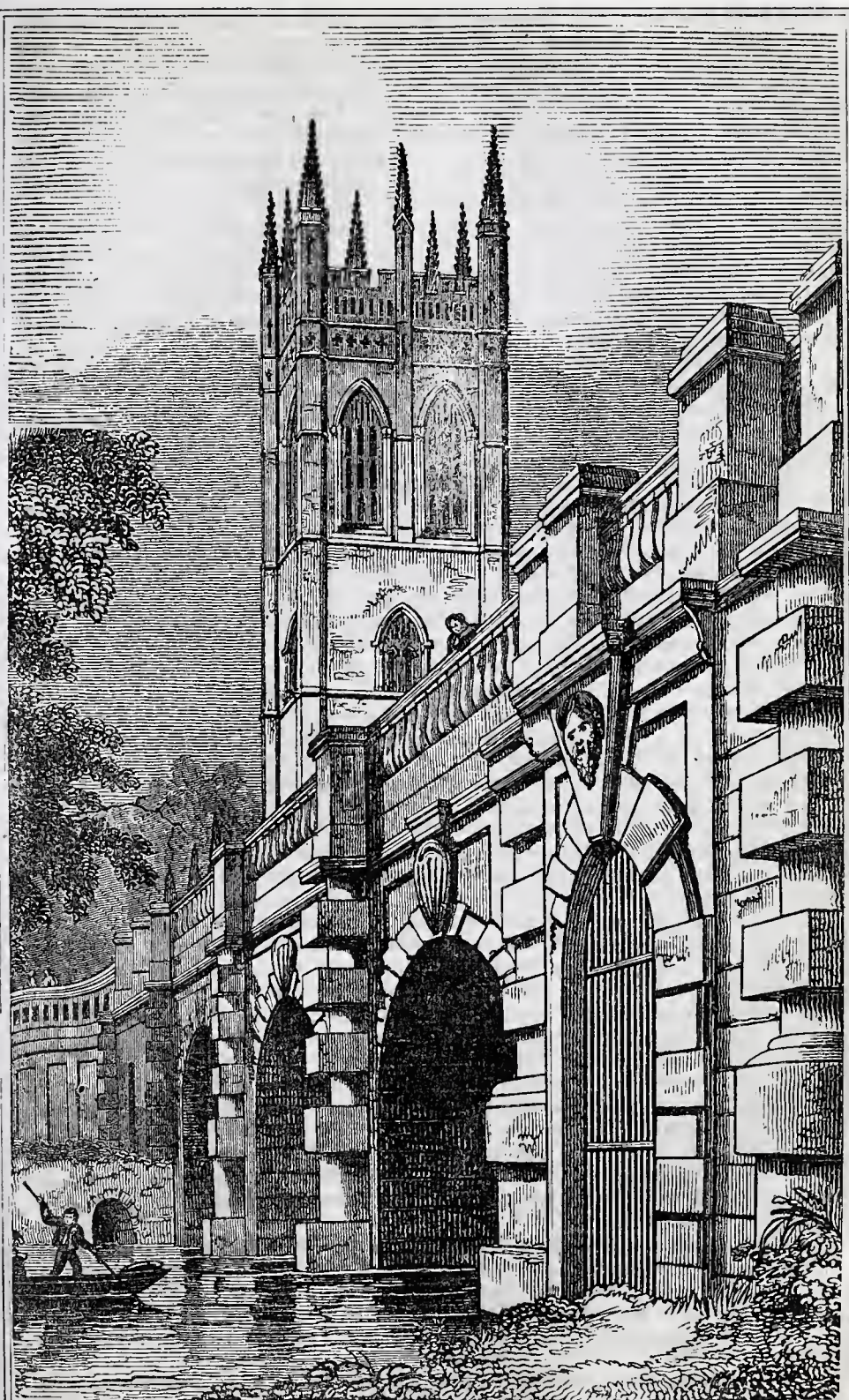
entrance to the college. On this site formerly stood Canterbury Hall, which was granted to the college by Henry VIII. In 1775 the north and east sides of it were rebuilt, after a design of Mr. Wyatt, chiefly at the expense of Dr. Robinson, primate of Ireland, who contributed two thousand pounds toward their completion; by whose liberality the south side also was rebuilt in 1783. The chief ornament of this court is the magnificent gateway, erected under the direction of Mr. Wyatt, in 1778. The order is Doric, and the design combines all that can be expected from a union of solidity and elegance. Both Canterbury and Peckwater quadrangles are inhabited chiefly by the undergraduate members of the college.

Magdalen college is one of the noblest institutions in Oxford. It was founded by William of Waynflete, bishop of Winchester, in the year 1458, for a president, forty fellows, thirty scholars, called demies, a divinity lecturer, four chaplains, eight clerks, and sixteen choristers for the service of the chapel. The members of the college still remain the same as at the time of the foundation, with the addition only of gentlemen commoners, for no commoners are admitted. The members on the books of this college in 1834 were one hundred and fifty-eight, of whom one hundred and fifteen were members of convocation. Magdalen college is bound by its statutes to entertain the kings of England and their sons when at Oxford, whence this hall was often been the scene of royal and princely festivities. Magdalen college is situated at the east entrance to Oxford, and forms a noble object as the traveller crosses the bridge over the Cherwell. The buildings, as designed by the founder, compose two quadrangular courts, one of small and another of large dimensions. The entrance to the first is through a modern Doric portal that does not harmonize well with the rest of the structure. In front of the court is the original entrance, now disused, to the larger quadrangle, under a venerable Gothic tower, which is adorned with statues of the founder, of Henry VI., and of St. John the Baptist, and Mary Magdalen, in canopied niches of exquisite workmanship. The other court is nearly as the founder left it, the south cloister being the only portion that has been added since his death. This court contains the chapel, hall, and library, with apartments for residence. Round the whole of this court is arranged a series of hieroglyphic figures, which have occasioned a good deal of speculation among the learned. Besides the two courts there is a tower, and several other ranges of buildings belonging to the college, which have been erected at different periods, and were not included in the founder's design. The tower, which attracts notice by its beautiful proportions, was finished in 1498. It is said to have been designed by Cardinal Wolsey, a report which seems to have originated in the fact that he was bursar of the college at the time: and the cardinal is reported to have affirmed that he owed all his greatness to its classic shades.

Pembroke college owes its foundation to the joint munificence of Thomas Teesdale and Richard Wightwick; for although in the charter, dated in 1624, James I. is called the founder, and the earl of Pembroke, then chancellor of the university, the godfather, yet it does not appear that either of these personages assisted the foundation otherwise than by their patronage. The college forms two small courts, comprehending some portions of the Broadgate Hall. The principal court, which was erected at different periods during the seventeenth century, is uniform and simple in its architecture. The front, which was only completed in 1694, is an unadorned elevation, with a low tower over the entrance in the centre.

New college was founded by William of Wykeham, bishop of Winchester, and lord high chancellor in the reign of Edward III., one of the most illustrious characters of the age in which he lived. In the same year, Wykeham began his collegiate establishment at Winchester, which was intended, and still continues, to serve as a nursery to this at Oxford. The original foundation was so ample that, with some subsequent additions, it has become one of the wealthiest societies in Oxford. It now consists of a warden, seventy fellows and scholars, with priests, clerks, and choristers, for the service of the chapel. The fellows and scholars are annually elected from the college at Winchester; the founder's kindred become fellows on their first admission, the others are scholars on probation till the expiration of two years. In its original charter, this college is called the "College of St. Mary of Winchester," but having received the name of "New College" at the time of its erection, it has retained that appellation to the present time.

All Soul's College was founded in the year 1437, by Henry Chicheley, archbishop of Canterbury, who prevailed on King Henry VI. to assume the title of co-founder. Wykeham's college, of which Chicheley had been a fellow, appears to have been



Magdalen Bridge, and the Tower of Magdalen College, Oxford.

the model he kept in view in this establishment, which is called in the charter—"The College of the Souls of all faithful people deceased of Oxford." It was originally intended for a warden, forty fellows, two chaplains, and six clerks and choristers. There are now four bible-clerks; but in other respects the original numbers are preserved. The buildings of this college form two large quadrangles, one of which was erected by the founder, and although now much modernized, still retains many of its original features. Two niches over the principal entrance contain large statues of Henry VI. and Chicheley. The other quadrangle, which is of comparatively modern erection, exhibits, especially when viewed from the west entrance, one of the most attractive scenes which Oxford can boast. The style is of the mixed Gothic. The chapel and hall are on the south side of this court, and the library on the north. One of the courts is 170 feet in length by 72 in width, and the other 172 by 155. The library, which was begun in 1716, and completed in 1756, possesses one of the largest rooms appropriated to the purpose in England, it being 198 feet in length, and thirty-two and a half in breadth. Dr. Young, the author of the "Night Thoughts," laid the foundation of this structure, which owes its erection to the munificence of Colonel Codrington, who bequeathed 10,000*l.* for the purpose, besides leaving to the society, books then valued at 6,000*l.*, and which are now worth a much larger sum.

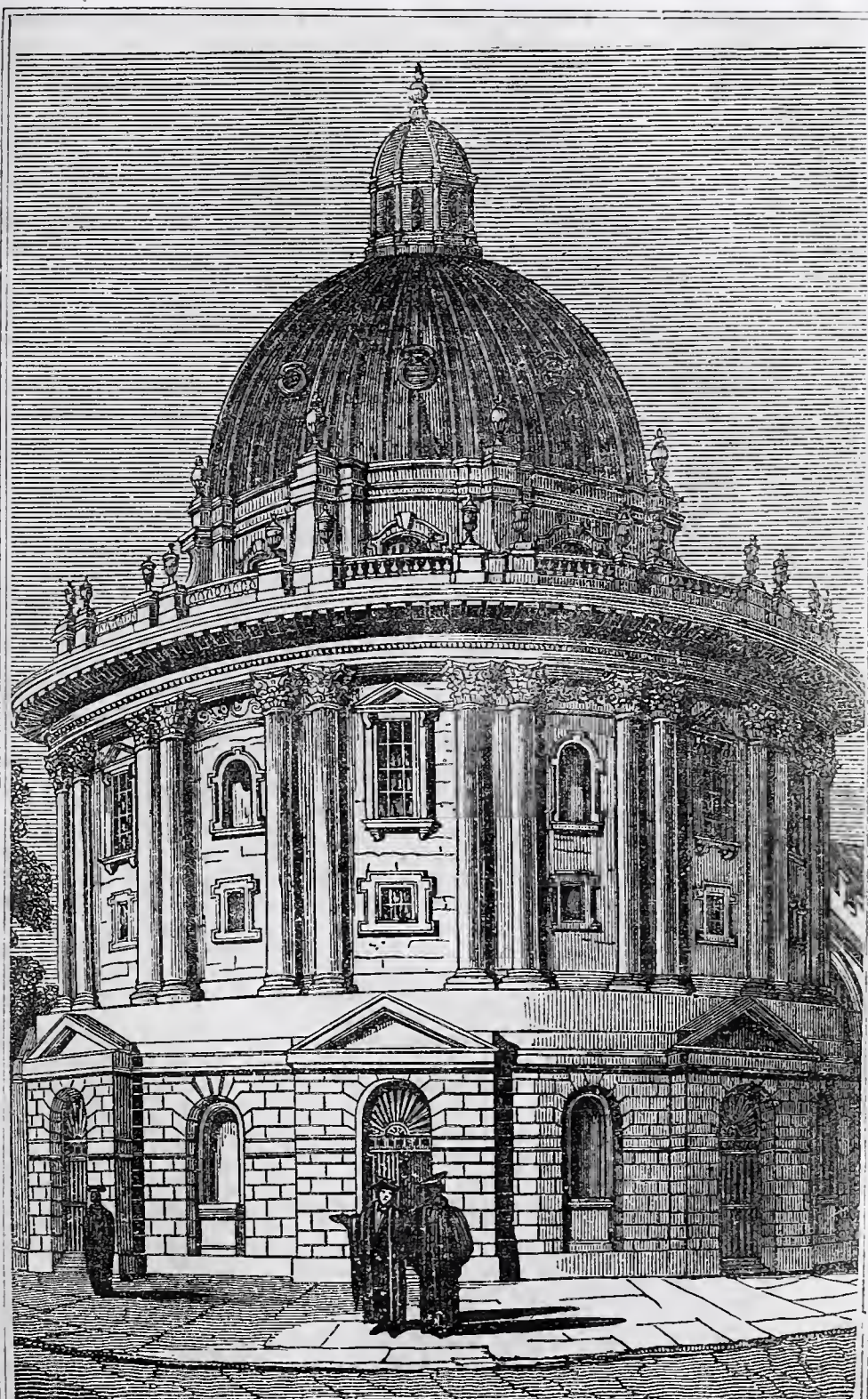
Without pausing to inquire into the general mode of appropriating the funds of the religious houses at the time of the reformation, it may be enough to state, that those which were applied to the endowment of educational establishments, were employed much more in accordance with the original spirit of the ecclesiastical foundations, than when, as was generally the case, they were given to enrich the rapacious followers of the licentious monarch that then reigned. A learned education at the time to which we are adverting, was usually possessed by the higher order of churchmen only, and a provision for that purpose was usually made by the monastic establishments, so that the new application of the funds to which we have alluded, was no more than the fulfilment of the original wishes of the founders.

Trinity college was originally founded and endowed by Edward III., Richard II., and the priors and bishops of Durham. As it was under the patronage of the latter, it obtained the name of Durham college, though dedicated from the beginning to the Holy Trinity, St. Mary, and St. Cuthbert. Being classed with religious houses at the Reformation it was suppressed, and Sir Thomas Pope, having purchased the site and buildings, began and endowed a new foundation, in 1554, for a president, twelve fellows, and twelve scholars. To this four exhibitions have since been added, one for a superannuated Winchester scholar; but, generally, the original foundation was so ample that few benefactors have thought the college required their assistance.

St. John's college was founded in 1555 by Sir Thomas White, alderman and lord mayor of London, who appropriated part of the wealth accumulated by industry and success in mercantile pursuits to the establishment of this college for a president and fifty fellows and scholars, two chaplains, and the members of the choir. All the fellows, except thirteen, are elected from the Merchant Tailors' School in London, of which corporation Sir Thomas was a member. The members now on the books of this college are 218, of whom 118 are members of convocation. The buildings of this college have been erected at different periods: they are chiefly arranged in two quadrangles, one of which still retains part of the tenements of St. Bernard's college, the site of which it occupies. In this division are the hall and chapel, with apartments for the president, and the fellows and the scholars. The principal entrance is under a square tower, adorned with a statue of St. Bernard, placed in a richly-canopied niche. On the east side is a passage leading to the other quadrangle, which was erected at the sole expense of Archbishop Laud from the designs of Inigo Jones.

Wadham college is entered by a handsome gateway, with a tower rising above it. A hall and chapel are on the eastern side, in the centre of which, and forming the entrance to the hall, is a portico, enriched by the statue of King James I. in his robes, with the royal arms over it; that of Nicholas Wadham, in armor, holding in his right hand the model of the college; and on the left is the figure of Dorothy, his wife.

The chapel is spacious and well-proportioned, with a noble ante-chapel, at right angles with the choir. The fine east window, which is the work of Bernard Van Linge, was presented to the college by Sir John Strangeways. It presents, in the



Radcliffe's Library, Oxford.

upper compartments, the principal types in the Old Testament relating to our Savior; and in the lower ones, the most remarkable circumstances of his history, as recorded in the New Testament. In the five windows on the north side are representations of the Prophets, and in those of the south, of our Savior and his Apostles.

Oriel college is comparatively speaking a modern structure. The quadrangle was finished in 1640; and in 1818 a considerable addition was made to it. The library was built from a design by Wyatt, and is considered one of the most perfect pieces of architecture in Oxford, but wants the advantage of situation. The front, with equal grandeur and simplicity, exhibits only the Ionic order; all the parts are great and commanding, the ornaments few, and the whole harmonious. This library contains a good collection of books.

Corpus Christi college is situated opposite the south side of Oriel college. The entrance is under a square tower, in the front of which are three unoccupied niches, with rich canopies. In 1706, the fellows' building was begun to be erected on the site of the old cloisters.

The hall, which is on the east side of the quadrangle, was built during the life of the founder, but has since undergone many alterations. It is very neatly fitted up. The fine carved work is much admired. Its dimensions are fifty feet by twenty-five. In this refectory are placed two portraits, of the size of life, and both of them exquisitely painted by Owen; the one, of the Right Hon. Sir Charles Abbott, lord chief justice of England; and the other, of the Right Rev. Thomas Burgess, bishop of Salisbury. Both these eminent men were originally scholars upon this foundation; and the portraits were presented to the society by each of them respectively.

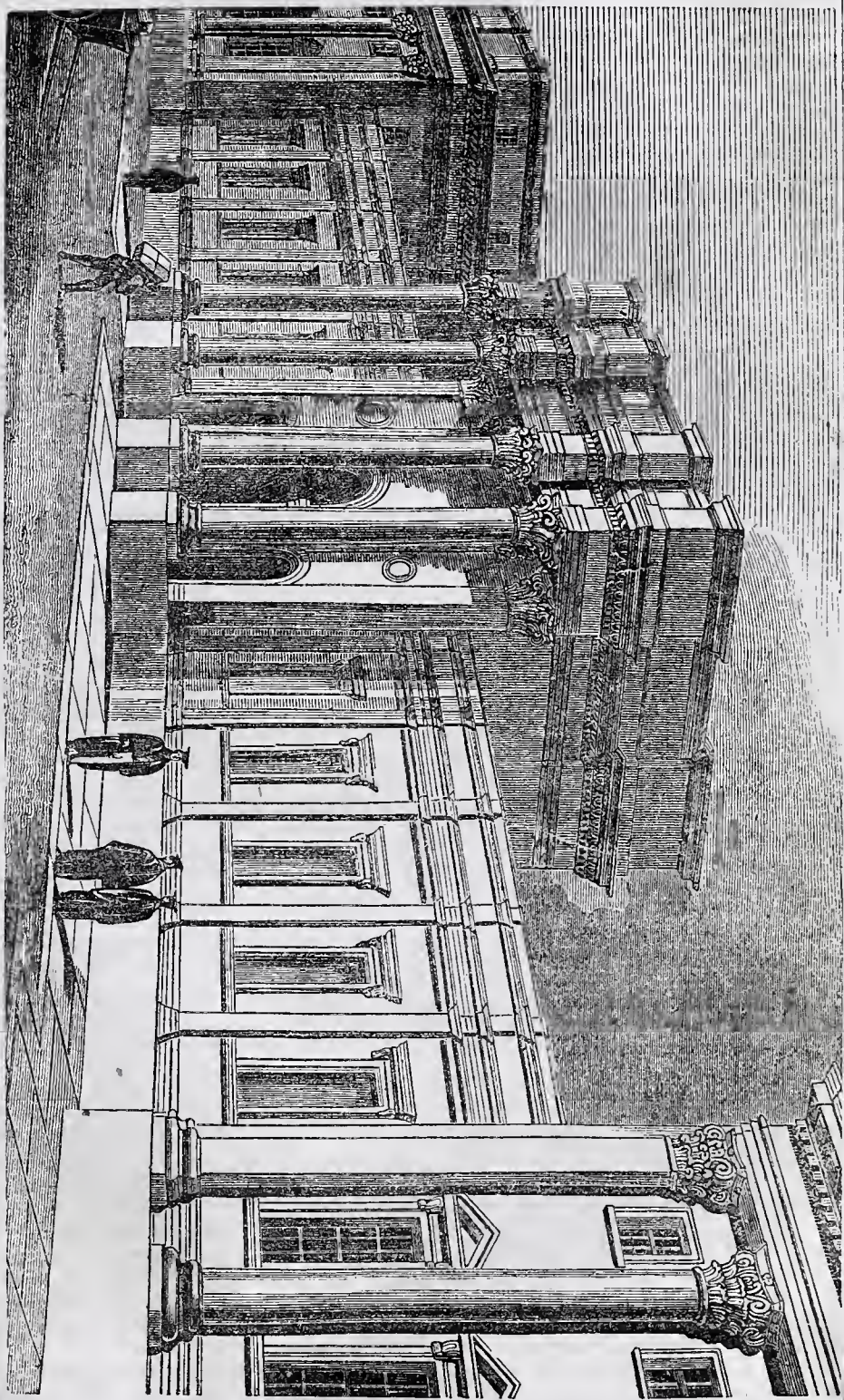
Brasen Nose college received its name from the circumstance of its standing on the ground formerly occupied by Brasen Nose hall, which had a large brass knocker on the gate in the shape of a nose. In the centre of the large quadrangle is a cast, generally called "Cain and Abel," though supposed by some to be "Samson killing a Philistine with the jaw-bone of an ass;" and by others considered as the study of some sculptor, whose principal object was the display of muscular strength and action. It was given to the college by Dr. Clarke, of All Souls, who purchased it from a statuary in London. This quadrangle contains the hall and apartments for the society. The lesser court on the left contains the library and chapel. The hall is a large room, containing fine portraits of the founders, King Alfred, &c. In the fine bay window at the upper end, on the left, are portraits of the founders; the opposite window has, within the last few years, been decorated with rich painted glass, and now forms an elegant ornament to this handsome room. Over the door toward the quadrangle are two very ancient busts of Alfred and John Scotus Erigena; the former is said to have been discovered when the workmen were digging the foundation of the college.

The library was rebuilt in 1780, and ornamented with a very elegant ceiling by Wyatt. It is a neat room, well stocked with books. At the upper end is a very fine bust of the Right Honorable Lord Grenville, chancellor of the university, by Nollekens, presented to the society by his lordship.

Exeter college is situated nearly opposite Jesus college. It has a large central gateway, consisting of a rustic basement, from which spring four pilasters, supporting a semicircular pediment crowned by a balustrade. The interior is quadrangular, and the garden is elegantly laid out; and, though in the central part of the city, is open to the east, where a terrace commands most of the principal buildings of the university. The library, which is most amply stored with valuable books, was erected in 1778, after a design of the Rev. Wm. Crowe, public orator.

Jesus college is entered by a handsome rustic gateway. The first quadrangle is formed by the chapel on the north side, the hall on the west, and the apartments for the members on the south and east. The second or inner quadrangle is a handsome structure, and was finished in 1676 by Sir Leoline Jenkins. The library of this college was erected in 1677. It contains many scarce and curious printed books and manuscripts; among the latter are those of Lord Herbert of Cherbury; also a fine one of the Llyfr Coch, or Red Book, written about the end of the fourteenth century. This curious manuscript contains several very ancient histories, poems, romances, &c., all in the Welsh language.

Lincoln college is situated between All Saints' church and Exeter college, and consists of two quadrangles. The first, the entrance to which is beneath a tower



New University Printing-Office, Oxford.

forms a square of eighty feet: it contains the rector's lodgings on the south; the library and common room on the north; the hall on the east; and on the west lodgings for the members.

The chapel, situated on the south of the inner court, erected at the expense of Dr. John Williams, bishop of Lincoln, and afterward archbishop of York, was consecrated in 1631. It is a well-proportioned and elegant Gothic edifice, of sixty-two feet in length, and twenty-six in breadth, fitted up with a richly ornamented cedar roof, and wainscot; the screen, the pulpit, and eight fine carved figures, are also of cedar, and very much admired. The windows, which are of painted glass, and very remarkable for their antiquity and the brilliancy of their colors, were procured from Italy, by Archbishop Williams, in 1629.

Baliol college is entered by a fine Gothic gateway, on which are the arms of the Baliol family. The chapel of this college was completed in 1529. The east window, which represents in brilliant colors the Passion, Resurrection, and Ascension, was the gift of Dr. Stubbs. On a window, on the north side, are represented Philip and the Eunuch, executed by Van Linge, in the year 1637.

The library was finished in 1477, and refitted some years since in a very neat and convenient manner, after designs by Mr. Wyatt. It contains a valuable collection of manuscripts, some of them beautifully illuminated; many early printed and rare English Bibles; a good collection of books on general literature, and several very curious tracts, arranged and bound up in volumes. The windows of the library are decorated with the arms, &c., of the benefactors, which are fully described by Wood, in his history of Oxford.

The hall is on the west side of the quadrangle. Its interior is in the modern style. Part of the ancient city wall was opposite this college, the remains of which, in good preservation, are still visible. Between this wall and the college ran so clear a stream, that it gave the name of Canditch (*candida fossa*), to the street leading by it, and by that name the spot was known in the time of Anthony Wood. The celebrated martyrs, Cranmer, Ridley, and Latimer, were confined in Bocardo prison, where North Gate stood, which gate was the strongest in the city. Bocardo was near the church of St. Michael, at the end of the Corn Market, and the prison is still remembered by some aged inhabitants of Oxford. The prisoners remained there together but a short time, for Ridley was taken to the house of Alderman Irysh, and Latimer to that of one of the bailiffs of the city; Cranmer remained in Bocardo. On the 16th of October, 1555, Ridley and Latimer were brought to the place called Canditch, and were there burnt. They suffered death with courage for the religion they professed, in the presence of the chief magistrates of the university and city, and a multitude of other spectators. Cranmer, being in Bocardo, ascended to the top thereof to see the spectacle, and kneeling down prayed to God to strengthen them. On the 21st of March following, Cranmer was brought to the same place and there also burnt.

Radcliffe library (page 289), is a very handsome modern structure, and possesses one of the most complete collections of works on natural philosophy extant. The funds for building it were bequeathed by the celebrated Dr. Radcliffe; and the foundation was laid in 1737. Its dome affords a wide and magnificent view of Oxford with its spires and towers, and the adjacent scenery. The architect was Gibbs, who built St. Martin's church, London.

Opposite the north gate of the library, with Radcliffe-square between, is the square of the schools; containing the treasures of the Bodleian (or university) library, founded by Sir Thomas Bodley, on the remains of the library of Duke Humphrey of Gloucester, the picture gallery, with the Arundel marbles and Pomfret statues. The picture gallery has some few good historic and landscape pieces, with an extensive collection of interesting portraits and busts. There are also models of some of the most precious remains of antiquity: the arch of Constantine at Rome; the Parthenon; the temple of Vesta at Tivoli; the Maison Carrée at Nismes; the Choragic monument of Lysicrates, commonly called the Lantern of Demosthenes, at Athens; the temple of "Fortuna Virilis" at Rome; the theatre of Herculaneum, the temples of Erectheus, Pandrosus, and Minerva Polias, on the Acropolis; the amphitheatre at Verona, and the temple of Vesta at Pæstum.

The Arundel marbles, collected in Asia, and presented by the duke of Norfolk in 1677, are curious as illustrations of history rather than as works of art. The Pomfret statues were presented by the countess of Pomfret in 1755.



Carter's Hall Passage, with the Old Town-Hall, Oxford.

The Clarendon printing-office was erected early in the eighteenth century, and the expense was defrayed by the profits derived from the earl of Clarendon's "History of the Rebellion." The architect Vanbrugh has executed a durable but heavy structure, really well fitted for the purpose for which it was originally designed. It is two stories high, and furnished with a handsome Doric portico ornamented with sculpture. The university has now, however, another printing-office of considerable extent, which is shown in our engraving on page 291, that has produced some very valuable works.

The town hall (p. 293), a very handsome edifice, was erected in 1754, at the joint expense of the county and the city, and has since undergone considerable improvement. In 1814 it was visited by George IV. (then prince regent), the late emperor of Russia, the king of Prussia, the late duke of York, the prince of Orange, the prince of Mecklenburgh, Prince Metternich, Prince Blucher, and other royal and noble personages, to whom was presented the honorary freedom of the city. Upward of 700 persons were present at this splendid scene. Adjoining to the town-hall is the council chamber, in which are portraits of Queen Ann; John, first duke of Marlborough; George, third duke of Marlborough; Sir Thomas White; Dr. Wall; Alderman Nixon, and Joan his wife; Zachary Bogan; Alderman Wise; Mr. Rowney, and other benefactors to the city.

The theatre is one of the principal ornaments of Oxford. It was designed and completed in five years, by one of the professors, the great Sir Christopher Wren, who, from being the most profound mathematician of his age, became its first architect. The first stone was laid in 1664, and the whole expense of building and fitting it up was defrayed by Archbishop Sheldon, amounting to nearly £15,000. He added £2,000 to be laid out in estates for its support and repair; and some years since, the late Dr. Willis, warden of Wadham college, left £1,000 for the same purpose. The ground plan of this theatre is taken from that of Marcellus, and by a judicious geometrical arrangement, it is made to receive with convenience upward of 3,000 persons, though its interior is only eighty feet by seventy.

St. Mary's church, which is one of the principal ones in Oxford, is a spacious Gothic structure, completed at a considerable expense in 1498. On the north side of the church is the monumental chapel of Adam de Bromé, the founder of Oriel college, the provost and fellows of which society are the patrons of the vicarage. The arch between the area and the chancel supports an organ by Smith.

St. Martin's, or Carfax church (p. 281), has been more recently erected. It was built by general subscription and parochial rates; the university as a body, and most of the colleges, contributed liberally.

There are four lecturers, chosen by the four aldermen, the eight assistants, and the recorder, who are called the Thirteen, and the electors have, at all vacancies, an opportunity of selecting the best preachers in the university. St. Martin's is a rectory of very small value, in the gift of the king. The first stone of the new church was laid October 23, 1820, and it was opened for divine service on Sunday, June 16, 1822. The former church was a very ancient structure, and no record of the time of its erection now remains. It is conjectured, that at an early period it was much larger; the tower, it is certain, was once considerably higher; but by command of Edward III. it was taken down, as it now appears, because, "upon complaint of the scholars, the townsmen could, in time of combat with them, retire to the tower as to their castle, and thence gall and annoy them with arrows and stones." The tower contains six bells.

Oxford has no staple manufacture or branch of trade, still deriving, as formerly, its principal importance and support from the university. The canal, however, which was completed a few years back, has opened new sources of commerce, of which the citizens will no doubt take advantage. The city of Oxford returns two members to parliament, and the university two. The internal government of the city is vested in a mayor, high-steward, recorder, aldermen, assistants, town-clerk, chamberlain, and common council. The mayor acts at the coronation of the kings and queens of England, and receives a gilt bowl and cover as his fee. The magistracy is subject to the chancellor or vice-chancellor of the university, in all affairs of moment; and the magistrates and sheriffs take every year an oath to maintain inviolate the rights and privileges of the university. Oxford has a population, exclusive of the university, of 18,800 persons, and it is fifty-eight miles west by north of London. Longitude one degree sixteen minutes west; latitude fifty-one degrees forty-five minutes north.

Cambridge is the chief town in Cambridgeshire, and is situated on the Cam, at the distance of fifty miles from London. It is also an elegant city, though less so than Oxford. The university has no certain date before 1229: it comprehends seventeen colleges, which, in most respects, are similar to those of Oxford. King's College chapel, built in the reign of Henry VI., is considered the most beautiful structure in either of the two university towns.

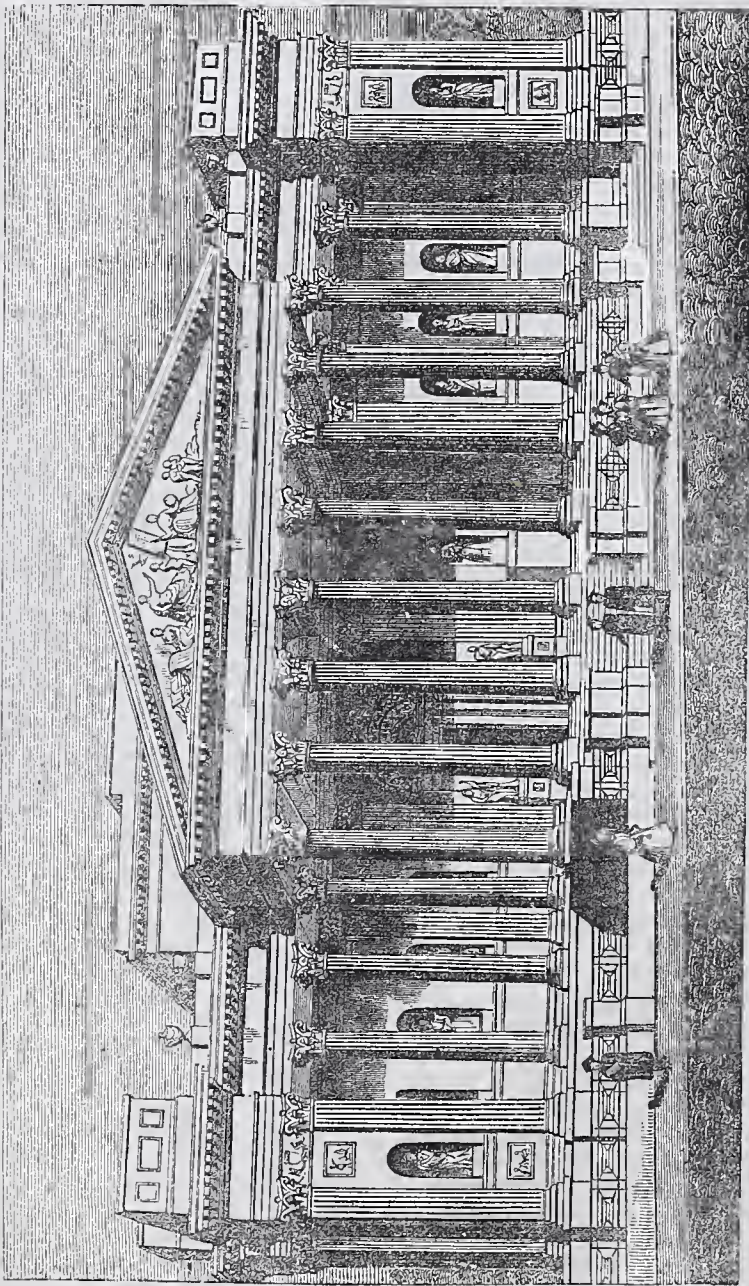
The several colleges of which the University of Cambridge is composed owe, in the greater number of instances, their present wealth and importance as much, or more so, to the favors and benefactions of a succession of patrons and friends as to the endowments of the original founders. To give, therefore, in our limited space, a separate history of each college would be useless; for it must either be, necessarily, a partial account, or else exhibit a catalogue of names uninteresting to the general reader, with details of endowments each very similar to the other. We must content ourselves with a general view.

The Cam forms nearly a semicircle round the town and university. There are two principal streets in the town—Trumpington street, into which the road from London runs, and Regent street, leading from the Colchester road. These two streets, under other names, meet at the opposite end of the town. Between Trumpington street and the Cam is St. Peter's college, the oldest college in the university, and the first in order in entering the town from the London road; a little further on, nearly opposite to St. Peter's, is Pembroke college; then, on the same side with St. Peter's, filling up the space between the street and the Cam, are Catharine hall, Queen's college, King's college, Clare hall, Trinity hall, Caius college, Trinity college, and St. John's college, with the senate-house, and public schools and library of the university. On the same side of the street with Pembroke college are Corpus Christi, or Bene't college, and Great St. Mary's, the university church. The remaining six colleges stand, each detached, in different parts of the town: Magdalene college on the north bank of the Cam; Sidney college, Jesus college, Christ college, Emmanuel college, and the new foundation of Downing college, on the south and southeast sides of the town.

Since 1820, a spirit of general improvement has pervaded the university, as a corporation, and the governing bodies of the colleges; the result has been a series of extensive alterations, and a number of additions, in the university and college buildings. The increasing number of students annually resorting to Cambridge had rendered the existing accommodation deficient; and the increasing value of the property of the university and of the colleges, and consequent augmentation of the funds, have not only, in many instances, enabled the accommodation to be extended, but have led to some fine architectural improvements. Of buildings erected since 1820 by the university, the chief are—the observatory, begun in 1822 and finished in three years, but to which additions are now making; and the Pitt Press, a splendid building, appropriated to the printing business of the university, which was opened on the 30th of April, 1831. The university has also purchased an old court from King's college, at the back of the public schools and library, for the sum of twelve thousand pounds, which is to be appropriated to buildings for the purpose of affording additional lecture-rooms, greater accommodation to the library, and new offices for the despatch of the ordinary business of the university. This court has been pulled down, and designs for the new buildings voted for. The beautiful old gateway which belonged to the court has been purchased by Trinity college, to be set up as an entrance to one of its quadrangles.

Of college improvements, independently of extensive re-edifications, the chief are—the new quadrangle of Trinity college, called King's court, in honor of George IV., who contributed one thousand pounds toward the expense of erecting it, of which the foundation stone was laid in 1823; the great quadrangle of King's college, commenced in 1824; the new college of St. John's (erected since 1824), connected with the old by a covered bridge, like a cloister; and the new front and court of Corpus Christi college. Additions have been also made to Christ's, Emmanuel, Jesus, Sidney, Magdalene, and St. Peter's colleges; and important alterations are in contemplation for Pembroke college, for which a building fund is accumulating.

The grounds belonging to those colleges which lie on the banks of the Cam are formed into walks, several of which are very pleasant, and a few afford picturesque views. The celebrated Dr. Richard Bentley, master of Trinity college, was among the first who led the way to those improvements of the grounds, which have con-



Fitzwilliam Museum, Cambridge.

verted a quantity of fenny land into ornamental and useful pleasure grounds. "He laid out," says Bishop Monk, "those beautiful walks on the opposite side of the river Cam, which are so great an ornament and convenience to Trinity college and to the university. This ground, previously called the Back Green, had been purchased above a century before by the exchange of more than thirty acres of land in the outskirts of Cambridge; it appears, however, to have been left in its original state of a fen. In the years 1717 and 1718 the present walks were formed, and the beautiful avenues of limetrees, the very perfection of academic groves, were planted." Dyer, writing upward of thirty years ago, thus describes the grounds of the colleges which skirt the Cam:—

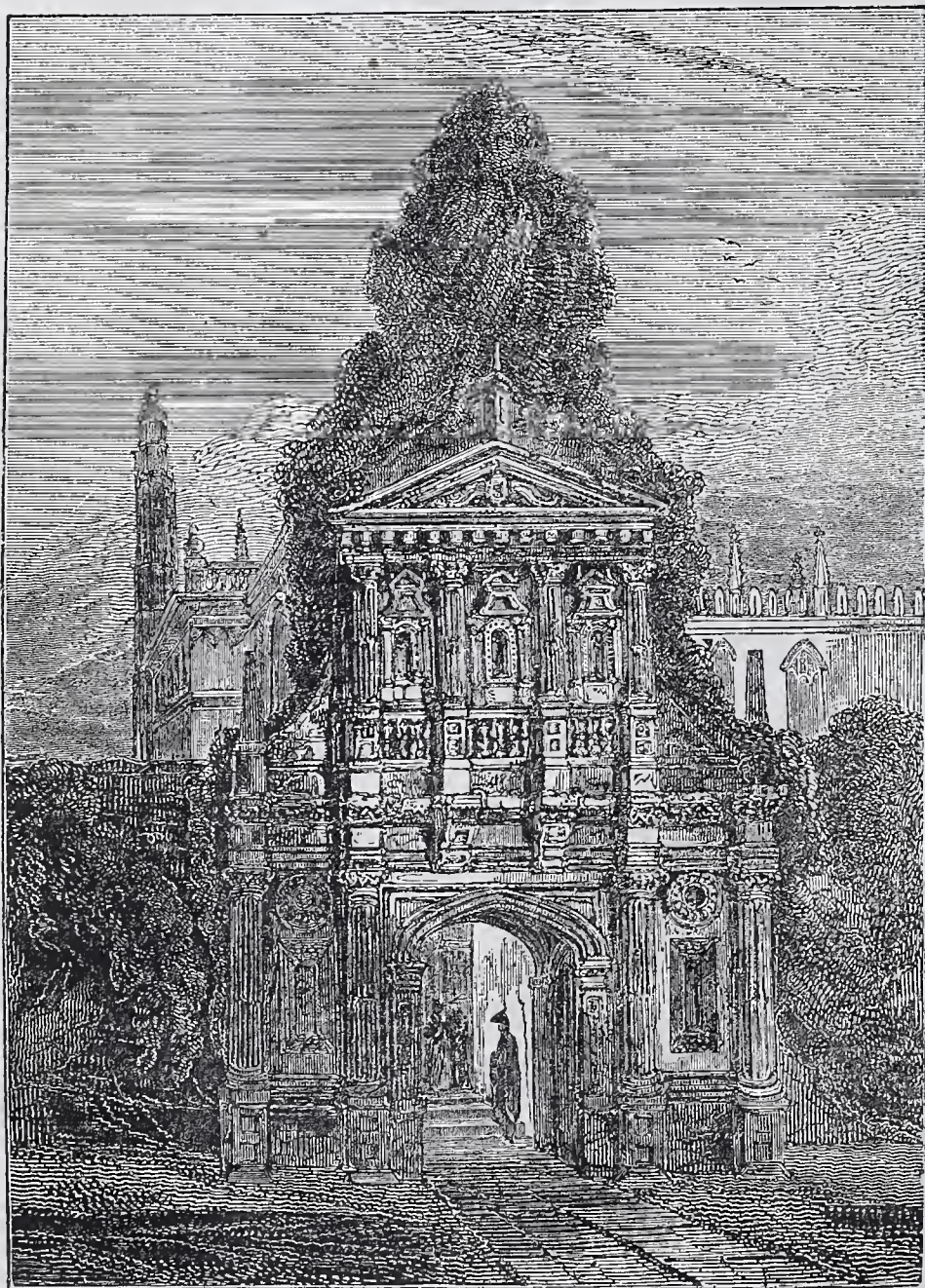
"These grounds, then, as they are now disposed, consist of several walks, with plantations of majestic elms, except one of a grand row of chestnuts, and two or three of limes. The walks are in general straight, and Cam moves near them; not crowned about here with much of his sedge, nor yet with cheerful underwood, but with slow, sullen course. Milton, therefore, was always for abusing him, whether writing in Latin or English. The narrow bed of the river does not admit of large, magnificent bridges; but one by the late Mr. Essex, an ingenious architect, formerly of this town, is of great elegance and universally admired.

"It may be admitted that the public walks of our sister university have some superior charms over those we are now describing: the walks are generally more winding, without so many formal straight lines and acute angles; the trees have greater variety of foliage (and consequently you have bolder lights and shades), and there is more of underwood and shrubbery amid their fine oaks, beech, birch, and elms." "But still our walks have their peculiar beauties, adapted to the place, and the walk planted with limes from Clare hall forms a vista, lengthened, and of admirable effect. You might say, perhaps, that Oxford has not anything of the kind equal to this. Taking into consideration the beauty and grandeur of the several buildings to be seen from Clare hall, or King's college, Oxford must yield to Cambridge: nor must you say this is not Grasmere, nor Keswick; there is no scene of the kind throughout all England that can be compared with these. The aspect, too, is the best that could be, both for the walks and effect on the adjoining buildings."

Peter's house, or St. Peter's college, as already intimated, is the oldest of the Cambridge colleges. It was founded by Hugh Balsham, or Bedesdale, as he is sometimes called. This was in the beginning of the reign of Edward I. Balsham was made bishop of Ely in the year 1257, and this year is commonly assigned as the date of the foundation of the college. But Balsham, at first, only bought two hostles, or hospitia, which he formed into one house, in which students lived rent-free, but at their own expense. The house, or hospitium, did not become a college for many years afterward—somewhere between the years 1274 and 1284, for the precise date is not ascertained. The distinction to be drawn between a hospitium and a college is, that the one was a kind of monkish or ecclesiastical house, which might rise or fall like an inn, according to its celebrity; the other, being founded by a royal license or charter, and endowed with property, became a legalized and perpetuated institution. Thus Peter's house was at first merely an hospitium, in which, says Fuller, "the students that lived therein (grinded formerly by the townsmen with unconscionable rents for the place of their abode) thankfully accounted themselves well endowed with good chambers and studies freely bestowed upon them." Afterward Balsham bestowed revenues on the house for the support of a master or head, fourteen fellows, two bible clerks, and eight poor scholars; and having obtained a royal letter, license, or charter, became thus the founder of the first college in Cambridge university. In the fourteenth year of Edward II. (1320 or 1321), there is a royal license for appropriating the advowsons of certain churches, to the value of forty pounds per annum, to the founding of houses for the use of scholars, notwithstanding a statute. Clare hall, which is next in antiquity to Peter's house, was founded in the first year of Edward III., in 1326. It was originally an hospitium, or hall, called University hall, founded by the then chancellor of the university, in which students lived, as they did at first in Peter's house, rent free, but at their own expense. Being burned down, it was rebuilt, endowed, and received a royal charter, through the means of Lady de Clare, granddaughter of Edward I., from whom it takes its name. Pembroke hall was also founded by a lady, the countess of Pembroke, in the twenty-fifth of Edward III. Her husband had been accidentally slain at a tournament held in honor of their wedding, which affected the lady so much as to lead her into retirement, and to spend her in-

come upon charity, of which the founding of Pembroke college is an instance. King's hall and St. Michael's hall were founded in 1322 and 1324, but they were merged in the great foundation of Trinity college. Merton hall had the same end. We find mention of a hall of the Annunciation of the Blessed Virgin Mary; and no doubt there were even at a late period many others, which have ceased to exist.

Gonville and Caius college was founded by Richard Gonville, but it may be said to have been re-founded by Dr. Caius. He was physician to Queen Mary, afterwards master of his own college, and zealously attached to its interests, and to those of the university at large. This worthy though eccentric man built three gates to the three courts of his college, on the first of which is inscribed "Humilitatis," the



Caius Gate of Honor, Cambridge.

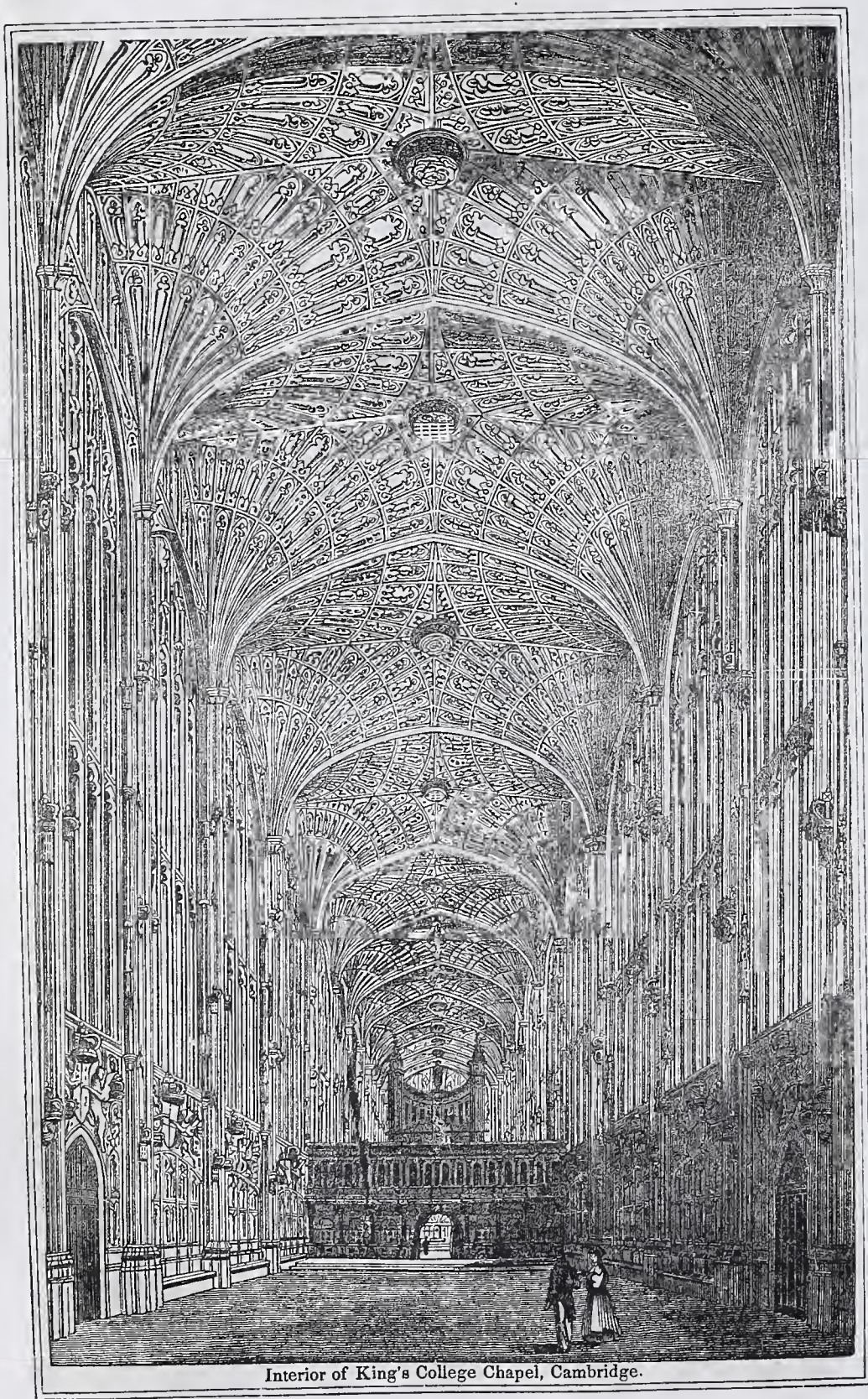
gate of humility ; on the second, "Virtutis," the gate of virtue ; and on the third, "Honoris," the gate of honor (see engraving). Trinity Hall was founded by William Bateman, bishop of Norwich.

The founding of Corpus Christi or Benedict college differs somewhat from all the others. All the other colleges were founded by individuals who either had a real love for literature, and were desirous of promoting its interests, or fell in with the fashion of the time, which pointed to the rich and noble as the supporters of religion and science. But Corpus Christi college was founded by two societies, who had in view a particular object. These two societies were the gilds of the Blessed Virgin and Corpus Christi. Gilds or guilds in early times were not merely associations of individuals practising certain trades or "mysteries," but there were also many gilds for religious and charitable purposes. The two gilds which founded this college were associations which combined something of the character of a friendly society with that of an association for devotional exercises. Both sexes were admissible ; the funds were appropriated to the relief of distressed and sick members ; on the death of a member the society, in costume, attended the body to the grave ; and sums of money were laid out in masses for the soul of the deceased. The society of Corpus Christi being rich and in a flourishing condition, proposed to found a college in which young persons might be trained up in academical learning, and fitted for making supplications and masses for the souls of the fraternity. A union was proposed in the work by the society of the Blessed Virgin ; and a license, or royal charter, having been procured, the college of Corpus Christi, commonly but wrongly called Bene't college (from Benedict parish, in which the gild of Corpus Christi had its hall), was founded. The societies have vanished, but their work remains.

The college which was next founded far surpassed any of the previous foundations. This was King's college, founded by Henry VI. He originally instituted a small seminary for a rector and twelve fellows, in the year 1441 ; but in 1443 he entirely changed his plan, and endowed the college for a provost, seventy fellows and scholars (to be supplied in regular succession from Eton, founded and endowed about the same time), three chaplains, six clerks, sixteen choristers, and a music master (who now possesses also the office of organist), sixteen officers of the foundation, twelve servitors for the senior fellows, and six poor scholars. King's college has some peculiar privileges. The head of the college, called the provost, has absolute authority within the precincts ; and by special composition between the society and the university, its under-graduates (under certain restrictions) are exempt from the power of the proctors and other university officers, within the limits of the college ; neither by usage do they keep any public exercises in the schools, or are any way examined for their bachelor of arts degree.

The "glorious chapel" of King's college has been very frequently described. Its erection, owing to a number of opposing obstacles which interrupted and retarded the work, was spread over a period of nearly one hundred years. The foundation stone was laid in 1446, by Henry VI. in person, who however did not contemplate the erection of a structure so exquisitely elaborated. The stone-work was completed in the reign of Henry VII. ; the glass-work was not put up till the beginning of the following reign ; and a great part of the casing of the chapel was not finished till 1532. The following general survey of the chapel is from Dyer's "History of the University" :—

"It is impossible for any one to approach this building without reverence. The architectural skill of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries is here displayed in its utmost perfection. It appears, from the will of the founder, Henry VI., that it is not built exactly according to his original plan, but the work was continued, though too parsimoniously, by Edward IV. and Richard III. ; the chapel, its roof, exterior decorations, turrets, and pinnacles, together with its interior oratories, and the glazing of the windows, were completed by Henry VI. ; but the finishing hand was given to it by Henry VIII. As it now appears, it would not be sufficient to say, that, as an architectural work, it is the pride of Cambridge, and surpasses in magnificence any edifice at Oxford ; it is allowed to be superior to every Gothic building in Europe. Without, the prodigious stones of which it consists—the vast buttresses by which it is supported—the loftiness and extent of the building—the fine proportions of the tower and pinnacles ;—and, within, the grand extended view—the admirable arched roof, without the support of any pillars, displaying all the rich-



Interior of King's College Chapel, Cambridge.

ness of its fine fan-work—and the matchless paintings on its windows—all combine to impress the beholder with emotions which can be better felt than described."

In Dallaway's "Observations on English Architecture," are the following remarks on King's college chapel, which, in addition to an interesting description of the building, give a brief condensed sketch of the progress of ecclesiastical architecture in England, from its first rude efforts to the triumph of the art in the construction of such a work as the one before us:—

"The great cause of our admiration, upon the first entrance into this chapel, is the unity of design; from which it appears to be smaller than in reality, or than on frequent examination it would do;—a circumstance invariably happening to those who visit the church of St. Peter at Rome. The grand whole instantly fills the eye, without any abatement or interruption. When we find leisure for the detail, we may admire the infinite parts which compose the roof, and the exquisite finishing of the arms and cognizances of the house of Lancaster; and regret that, being so large, they should be stuck against the finely-wrought pilasters, like monumental tablets in a parish-church. The stained glass heightens the effect of the stone-work, and gives it a tint which can never be produced by any wash of lime, with whatever substance it may be combined, when the light passes through diminutive squares of raw white glass. As so much is added to architectural excellence, how great soever it may be, by a sober and uniform tone of color—somewhat, if the expression be allowable, between glare and sombre—the modern improvers of our cathedrals have shown judgment in abandoning the plain white or yellow which pervade the cathedrals of Ely and Wells. King Henry VI., as it is evident from the injunction he makes, in the instance of both his colleges, against superfluous masonry, never intended a roof so splendidly elaborate as that designed and perfected under the auspices of his successors. His objection was not to the difficulty or impracticability of the work, for several of great extent had been erected prior to and during his reign, but to the enormous expense it would require.

After this lengthened notice we can but briefly allude to the painted windows, in themselves, apart from the building in which they are placed, extraordinary works of art. These windows are each nearly fifty feet high, and are filled with delineations of the principal events recorded in the Bible.

Between the founding of King's college and Trinity college—both royal foundations, the first the greatest college of its time, the second the largest and leading college of Cambridge—there were five colleges founded. These were Queen's college, Catharine hall, Jesus college, Christ college, St. John's college, and Magdalene college. "I confess," says Fuller, "building of colleges goeth not by planets, but by Providence; yet it is observable that * * * when one once brake the ice, many follow in the same beaten track of charity." We may therefore pass over the history of each separate foundation, the details being very similar, observing, by the way, that St. John's college, the second college of Cambridge, ranking next to Trinity college in extent, was founded by Lady Margaret, countess of Richmond, mother of Henry VII., who also founded Christ college, and to whom the university is indebted for the first professorship which appears on its records. The history of Trinity college is thus given by the present bishop of Gloucester in his "Life of Bentley":—

"It was founded by King Henry the Eighth, about one month before his death, and endowed with revenues taken from the dissolved monasteries. Its earlier years were somewhat clouded by the struggles between the Romish and Reformed churches; but upon the accession of Elizabeth the foundation was completed, and placed upon its present liberal footing, giving ample encouragement to the pursuit both of ornamental and useful knowledge, and opening the emoluments of the college, as rewards to the merit of the students, in the most unrestricted manner. Accordingly, we find that Trinity college rose at once from the infancy to the maturity of its fame: and from that epoch to the civil troubles in the reign of Charles I., a period of little more than eighty years, it flourished in a manner unexampled in the history of academical institutions. The illustrious names of Lord Bacon and Sir Edward Coke stand at the head of a list of its members distinguished in the theatre of public life. During the reigns of Elizabeth and James I., a period when extraordinary attention was shown to merit in ecclesiastical appointments, a greater number of bishops proceeded from this than from any other society; and it was observed, about the beginning of the seventeenth century, that Trinity college might claim at

the same time the two archbishops of Canterbury and York, and no less than seven other principal prelates on the English bench. So greatly did theological learning flourish here, that when the present translation of the Bible was executed by order of James I., no less than six of the translators were found among the resident fellows of the college. In elegant literature it claimed an equal celebrity, having, in addition to many of the Elizabethan poets, produced those two constellations of wit and learning, John Donne and Abraham Cowley; while it boasts, in the next generation, the still more illustrious name of Dryden. So high was its reputation during the period of which we are speaking, that fellows of the society were chosen to fill the headships of other colleges in the university.

“The civil troubles and the intolerance of the Puritans brought ruin and confusion upon this as well as other societies; all the royalist fellows were expelled, along with Dr. Thomas Conder, the master, one of the most exemplary characters that ever presided over a college. The Restoration did not bring back the prosperity or the spirit that had been banished by the evil times; nor could the society recover the paramount station which it had so long maintained. There were indeed some circumstances peculiarly auspicious to Trinity college. Dr. John Pearson and Dr. Isaac Barrow, two of the brightest characters which grace the period of Charles II., were successively masters. In the meantime, the fabric nearly attained to the state in which it continued till the year 1824; the beautiful quadrangle, half of which had been built in the mastership of Dr. Thomas Neville, the dean of Peterborough, and in a great degree at his own cost, was now completed by the munificence of two restored fellows, Dr. Thomas Slater, and Dr. Humphrey Babington; and the noble library, an edifice unrivalled for magnificence and convenience, was erected by a subscription of the members, under the auspices of Dr. Barrow. Above all, the presence and example of Sir Isaac Newton might have been expected to sustain the spirit of a college, the scene of all his great discoveries, of which he continued many years a resident fellow. In spite of these advantages, the house was observed to decline in numbers and celebrity in the latter years of the seventeenth century.”

We can not here enter into the details of Bentley's connexion with Trinity college, nor the extraordinary contests which he maintained with the university and with individuals. He was appointed master in 1700, and died in 1742, at the age of eighty. Very nearly one half of his long term of mastership was spent in struggles which affected his official existence, but which arose, not out of conflicting principles, but tempers.

Emmanuel college and Sidney college were founded in the years 1584 and 1598, which completed the number of colleges, sixteen in all, until 1800, when the seventeenth, Downing college, received its charter. This latter college was founded according to the will of Sir George Downing, who died in 1749; but the appropriation of the estates and the granting of the charter were delayed by litigation. Nearly two sides of a quadrangle of the buildings of Downing college have been erected; but, owing to the want of funds, it is uncertain when the college will be completed.

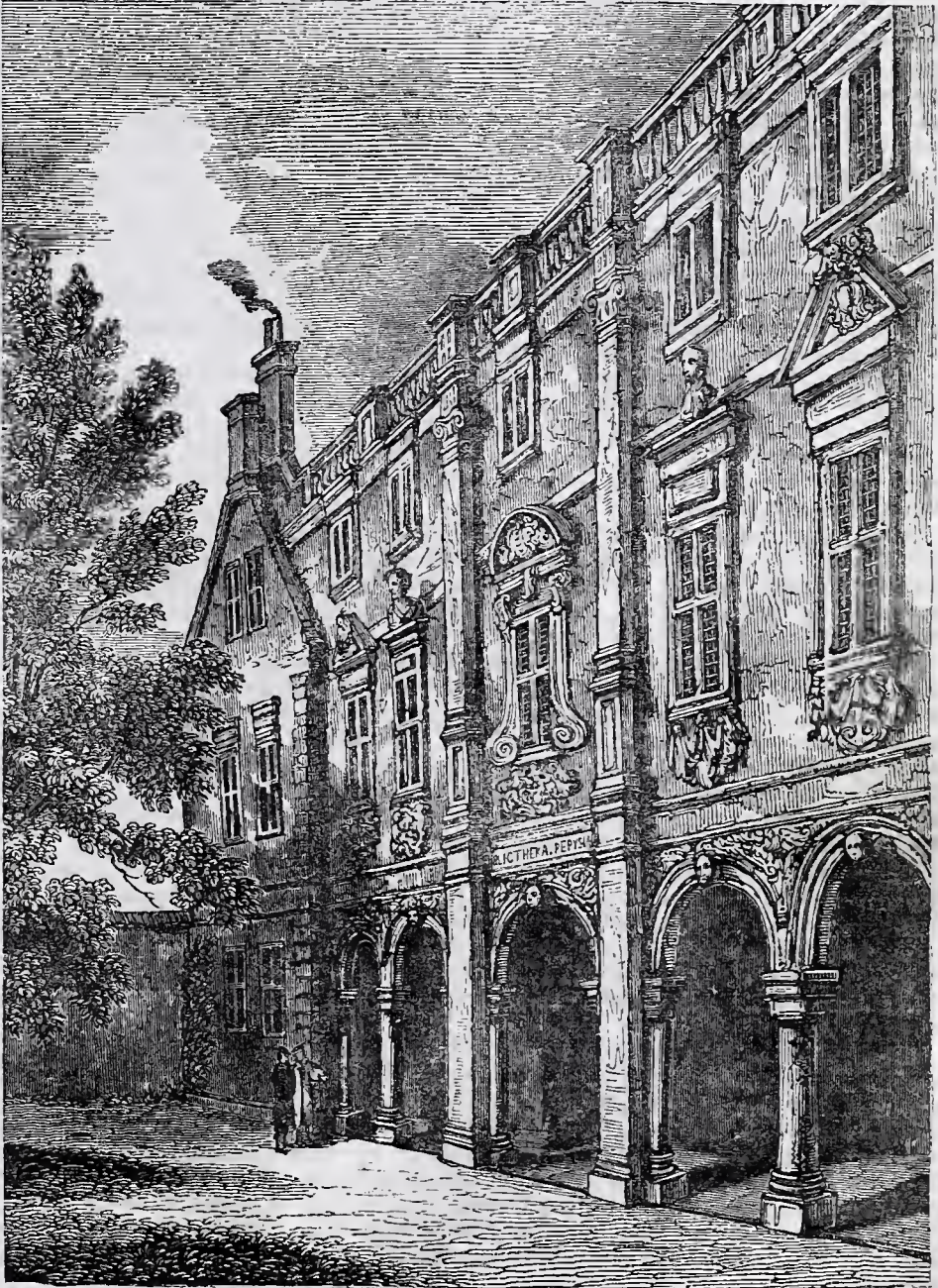
The first college was founded toward the end of the thirteenth century; five during the fourteenth; four in the fifteenth; six in the sixteenth; and, after an interval of more than two hundred years, the last college was founded in the last year of the eighteenth century.

The finest view of a portion of the college and university buildings is to be obtained in Trumpington street, where, on one side, is Great St. Mary's on the other the senate-house, public library, and King's College chapel. The senate-house, a fine structure, is almost thrown into the shade by its vicinity to the chapel. It is built of Portland stone; its style of architecture is the Corinthian; the interior is one hundred and one feet long, forty-two broad, and thirty-two high. The public business of the university, such as examinations, passing of grades, and admission to degrees, is carried on here, and strangers wishing to observe the ceremonies are admitted into the galleries which are calculated to contain one thousand individuals. Great St. Mary's is the University church, in which, on Sundays and holydays, sermons are preached by graduates appointed in their turn by the vice-chancellor.

The most munificent of modern bequests to the university are those of Sir George Downing and Lord Fitzwilliam. The first, as already mentioned, is the foundation of a college, named after the donor; the second is that of the Fitzwilliam museum. Lord Fitzwilliam died in 1816, and by his will gave his collection of curiosities,

paintings, &c., to the University of Cambridge, together with one hundred thousand pounds, South Sea annuities, the interest of which to be appropriated to the erection of a suitable building for the museum. In the meantime a temporary building was fitted up for its reception. In 1836, ground for a suitable structure for the museum was purchased and cleared ; and in the course of the two following years this beautiful edifice (a view of which is given on page 296) was completed.

While mentioning bequests we may perhaps not inappropriately close with a view of the Pepysian Library, the gift of the well-known Samuel Pepys to Magdalene college, of which he was a member.



The Pepysian Library, Magdalene College, Cambridge.

CHAPTER XIX.

NAVAL STATIONS.

PORTSMOUTH, the principal rendezvous of the British navy, is situated on the west side of the isle of Portsea, in Hampshire. To the west of the island is the bay called Portsmouth harbor, excelling every other on the coast of England for its spaciousness, depth, and security. The obvious utility of this harbor, in such a situation, caused it to be used at an early period as a station for shipping, and hence the rise of the town of Portsmouth on the narrow inlet by which it communicates with the English channel. It is also to be observed, that the strait between the mouth of this harbor and the isle of Wight forms the celebrated roadstead of Spithead, which is capable of containing a thousand sail at anchor in the greatest security. The original or old town of Portsmouth, surrounded by ancient walls; the modern suburban towns of Portsea and Southsea, respectively situated to the north and south of the original town; and the town of Gosport, on the opposite side of the inlet to the harbor, may all be said to form one cluster of population, probably numbering not less than 70,000. The beach opposite Southsea being well adapted to sea-bathing, has caused that suburb or village to become a watering-place of some note.

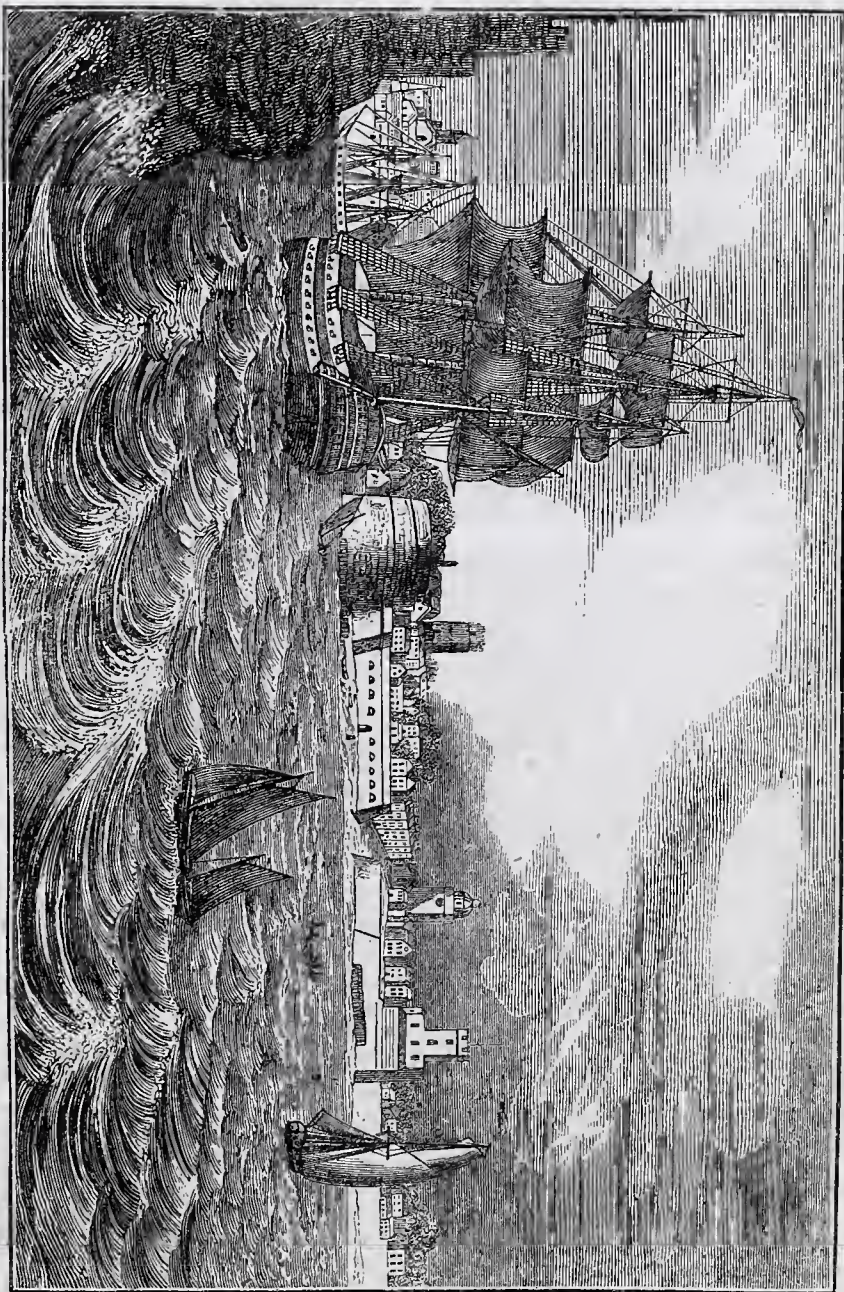
The docks, arsenal, building-yards, and all the various other establishments concerned in the fitting out and safekeeping of the national shipping, render Portsmouth an object of wonder to all who see it for the first time. The dockyard includes the great area of one hundred acres. The smithery is a vast building, where anchors are wrought weighing from seventy to ninety hundredweight each. On the anchor-wharf hundreds of these useful implements are piled up, ready for immediate service. The ropery, where the cordage for the vessels is prepared, is three stories high, fifty-four feet broad, and one thousand and ninety-four feet long. The gun-wharf is an immense arsenal, consisting of various ranges of buildings for the reception of naval and military stores, artillery, &c. The small armory is capable of containing twenty-five thousand stands of arms.

There is a naval college, where a hundred scholars in time of war, and seventy in time of peace, are taught; thirty, who are the children of officers, being maintained and educated at the public expense. During war, the number of persons employed in the various establishments connected with the public service at Portsmouth has amounted to five thousand. The principal buildings connected with the arsenal and dockyards, are the commissioner's house, the government house, the victualling office, the port-admiral's house, and the naval and military barracks. The promenade along the fortifications forms one of the most agreeable features of the town.

Among objects of curiosity, we may specify the Victory, Nelson's flag-ship at Trafalgar, the Semaphore telegraph, and the house (No. 116 High street) in which the duke of Buckingham was temporarily residing when, in front of it, he was stabbed to death by Lieutenant Felton, in 1628. The church of Portsmouth is a spacious Gothic structure, with a comparatively modern tower, useful as a landmark to seamen. There are various charitable, literary, and scientific institutions connected with the town.

Woolwich, from its importance as the grand military and naval dépôt for England, as well as from its proximity to London, has become one of the most frequented and popular resorts of those who in their rambles in pursuit of amusement, wish to be instructed at the same time. In this town may be seen many of the vast preparations necessary to render effective the precautions by which the peace of England is preserved. Here are manufactured the instruments by which the attacks of an enemy may be repelled or retaliated—here are constructed some of the immense vessels by which the British empire is enabled to exert its influence on distant countries, and here those chivalrous youths are educated, who are destined to direct the operations of arms and ships, when their exertions are called for.

Woolwich is situated about eight miles from London, in a direction east by south,



View of Portsmouth, from the Harbor.

or about nine miles and a half by water. From the southern portion of the town an extensive and picturesque country is presented to the eye; Shooter's hill, surmounted by Severndroog castle, forming a conspicuous object in the distance, while, nearer, the pretty village of Charlton delights the spectator with its rural beauties. The town is bounded on the north by the Thames, whose waters, bearing ships loaded with the produce of all parts of the world, roll proudly by. The general aspect of the town itself is not very inviting, yet in those parts farthest from the river several neat and pretty houses have lately sprung up, which, with the handsome buildings erected by the government, render the appearance more cheerful than the small and dirty houses nearer the river would lead a visitor to suppose. Strangers, however, occupy themselves chiefly in the inspection of the curiosities of the place, in visiting the arsenal, the dockyard, the rotunda or military museum, &c., while the resident will find many delightful scenes in the vicinity to console him for the dulness of the town itself.

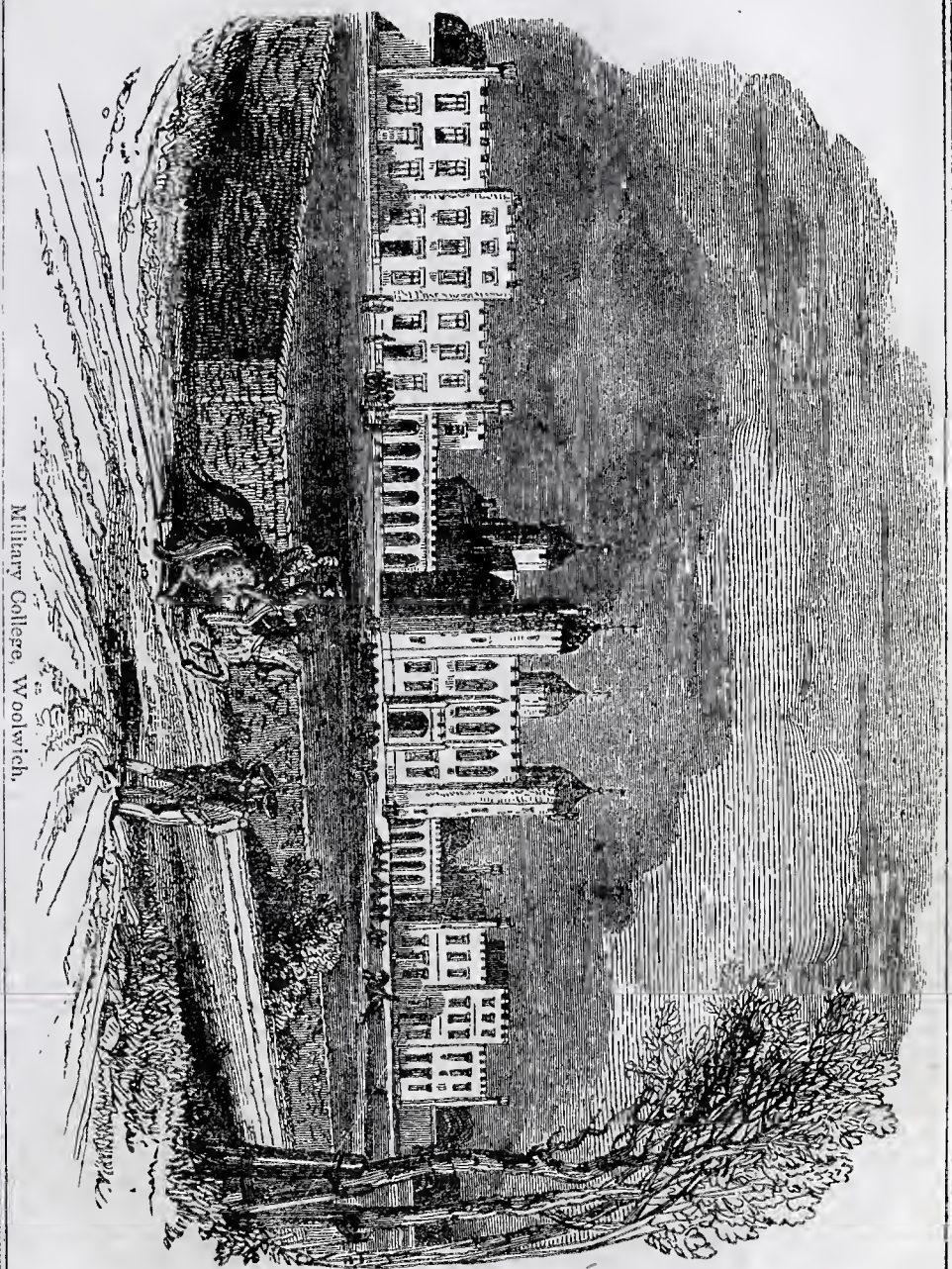
One of the most interesting establishments in Woolwich is the royal military academy, for the education of young gentlemen in all that relates or is in any way necessary to the knowledge of artillery and engineering. These gentlemen cadets number from one hundred and twenty to one hundred and fifty; they are instructed in the ancient and modern languages, mathematics, chymistry, the art of fortification, drawing, fencing, &c. The establishment is under the superintendence of a governor, who is always master-general of the ordnance for the time being; the resident officers are a lieutenant-governor and inspector, a professor of mathematics, a professor of fortification, masters of drawing, languages, &c. Examinations of the students are held monthly, when reports of the state of progress are laid before the master-general, and according to these reports the students, or cadets, are selected to supply vacant commissions in the respective corps of the royal artillery and engineers.

The building is situated on the southeastern edge of Woolwich common, toward which it presents an elegant façade; and the appearance of the tower with its turrets, from a distance, is extremely picturesque. This academy was established in the royal arsenal as early as 1719, and chartered by warrant of George II. in 1741, but the accommodation at the commencement of the present century being insufficient, a new situation was chosen, and the present building erected in 1805. It is a spacious pile, partly in the early English, and partly in the Elizabethan style. A large tower in the centre, surmounted by four castellated turrets with octagonal domes, is the principal feature of the building. This is connected with the wings by a castellated colonnade or arched recess. The main entrance, a simple archway, is approached by a long avenue from the north, whence the wooded heights of Shooter's hill may be perceived rising in the distance, to the left of the building.

The barracks for the royal artillery form the most elegant suite of buildings in Woolwich; they are situated to the north of Woolwich Common, and command an uninterrupted prospect of the country to the south of the town. The principal front, extending above twelve hundred feet, consists of six ranges, connected by four buildings thrown a little behind, and by as many covered ways or colonnades of the Doric order, surmounted with balustrades. The material of the building is a light brick, relieved by Portland stone in the lower portions; this is also employed for the elegant portal in the centre of the building. Two cupolas, one containing a clock, the other a wind-dial, ornament the summit, and break the uniformity of the line. In the eastern wing is a spacious and elegant chapel containing one thousand sittings, in which divine service is regularly performed. The other principal parts of the building are the library and reading-room, for the use of the officers, supplied with the periodicals and daily papers; and the mess-room, sixty feet in length and fifty in width. This latter room is connected with two others, the drawing and ante rooms, which together form a splendid suite of apartments, in which frequent balls and entertainments are given by the officers to their friends.

From the principal entrance an avenue, two hundred and twenty yards in length, terminated by a handsome gateway at the northern portion of the barracks, divides the building into two quadrangles, by the sides of which are the stabling and barracks for the horse artillery; and at the extremity of the east quadrangle is a spacious riding-school. The whole establishment is arranged for the accommodation of from three thousand to four thousand men.

Passing through the barracks and bearing toward the northeast, the gates of the



Military College, Woolwich.

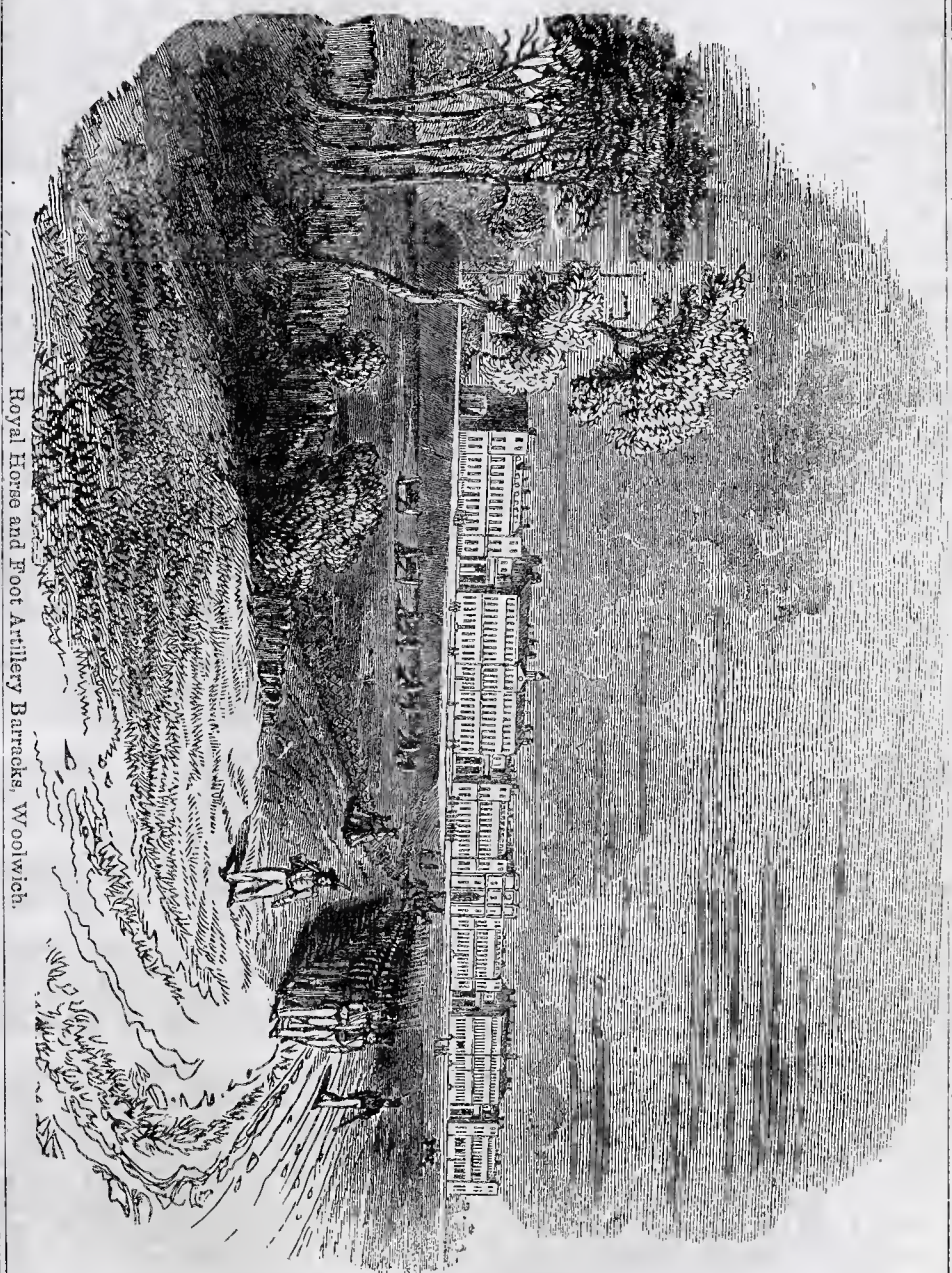
Royal arsenal will be observed but a short distance off. This establishment is composed of a number of buildings, which, if not distinguished for their outward appearance, will, when the visiter becomes acquainted with the interior, be considered more interesting than perhaps any others in Woolwich.

Previous to the time of George I. the foundry for cannon, which now forms one of the principal departments of the arsenal, and may be said to be the cause of its present importance, was situated in Moorfields, from which place it was removed in consequence of an accident, attended with great loss of life, which happened during the casting of some large pieces of ordnance in the manufactory at Moorfields. A large concourse of people had assembled to witness the operation, and among them was a young Swiss, named Schalch, who, examining the different parts of the works with great minuteness, found that the moulds in which the cannon were to be cast were in a damp state, and knowing that the steam generated by the heated metal would be so violent as to cause an explosion, he immediately communicated the fact, with his fears for the consequences, to Colonel Armstrong, the surveyor-general, who instantly perceiving the danger, endeavored to persuade his friends to retire with him from the scene of the impending calamity. In this he partially succeeded, but many, discrediting the fact that the slight dampness observable in the moulds would cause such disastrous effects, remained behind. The prediction of Schalch was verified. In a few minutes after his departure the liquid metal flowing into the moulds converted the dampness instantaneously into steam, which, unable otherwise to find its escape, burst the moulds asunder, threw the heated metal about in all directions, and destroyed great part of the building. Many persons were killed on the spot, others died soon after from the injuries they had received, and scarcely any escaped without some wound or bruise more or less serious.

A few days after the accident a notice appeared in the public papers requesting Schalch to call at the ordnance office in the tower, and suggesting that the interview might be advantageous. Schalch found it so; for his mechanical abilities having been put to the test in an examination he underwent in an interview with Colonel Armstrong, he was requested in the name of the government to seek out some eligible site within twelve miles of the metropolis to which the manufacture of ordnance might be transferred. Having chosen the spot called "the Warren" at Woolwich, a foundry was erected there, and the young Swiss appointed superintendent, an office he continued to hold for sixty years. He died in 1776, at the advanced age of ninety years, and was buried in Woolwich churchyard.

On entering the gateway the visiter, after obtaining permission to view the works (which is readily granted at the guard-house, where he will be furnished with a ticket admitting him to all the departments), will find the foundry a few steps before him. At the present time there is no important work going on at this building, but it is provided with every necessary for the most extensive ordnance manufacture. It has four air-furnaces, the largest of which will melt one hundred and seventy-five tons of metal. In the year 1809, when the establishment was kept in great activity, three hundred and eighty-five guns were cast here, and in the following year three hundred and forty-three. The guns are cast solid, and are afterward bored and turned in a separate building. For this purpose the gun itself is turned round on its axis while a centrebit is applied to the mouth and gradually advanced to the opposite end; the operation of turning the exterior being carried on at the same time. Every gun when completed is minutely examined by magnifying glasses on the outside, and by mirrors in the interior, in order that any flaw may be detected: if in this examination no defect is found, it is then charged with powder and fired, that it may be fully proved. It sometimes happens that the most accurate scrutiny is insufficient to detect some minute defect, and in that case the only means by which such becomes known is by the destruction of the piece when fired. This operation is performed on the banks of the canal, near the great storehouses, at which place there is a large saw-mill, and a curious circular planing-machine, which those visitors who are not acquainted with such instruments on a grand scale are permitted to inspect.

Near the foundry is the "Pattern-Room," a building in which is deposited a pattern or model of every article used in the artillery service. The first article which presents itself on entering the building is a model of the machinery employed in reducing gunpowder to minute particles fit for the several purposes to which it is to be applied. The powder is made up into cakes of about four inches square, which are put into the machine, and are then ground into minute grains, varying in size according to



Royal Horse and Foot Artillery Barracks, Woolwich.

the dimensions of the ordnance for which it is intended ; it being found that large-sized grains are better for cannon than the small particles used for musketry, as, from the large quantity required, the small-grained powder would take a longer time to ignite, in consequence of the exclusion of air from the central portion, than the powder composed of larger pieces, which allow the air to pass between them. Near to this model is a machine intended to measure the strength of the powder by the recoil of the piece which is loaded by it. A certain quantity is put into a small cannon hanging from an arc, from which also an index is suspended. The distance to which the gun is sent in the recoil is marked by the index, which sliding rather tightly in the groove of the arc, remains fixed at the point to which the gun drives it ; for after the discharge, although the gun oscillates for some time, the space it traverses gradually becomes less, the most extensive being the recoil consequent on the discharge. Thus the force of the recoil is accurately and permanently registered, and by it the strength of the powder is judged.

In the room to the left of this are specimens of Congreve rockets, from a small one of twelve or fourteen inches in length to the largest used in the service, above six feet long. These formidable weapons have been much used in modern warfare, being employed to carry various destructive instruments. The cases of the Congreve rockets are made of a cylindrical piece of iron, but formed somewhat differently at the head, according to the purposes for which they are to be employed. Those called carcass-rockets are armed with strong conical heads of iron, pierced with holes, and containing a substance as hard and solid as iron itself, which, when once inflamed, is inextinguishable, and scatters its burning particles in every direction. Others carry shells or case-shot, the firing of which is regulated by slow fire attached to the rocket, and which, when they explode, commit as much devastation as the shells from bombs.

The Congreve rockets are generally fired from a long iron cylinder (exhibited in the same room with the rockets), which is placed nearly horizontally, and the rockets will travel, according to their weight and size, distances of from two thousand to four thousand yards. They were first used in the attack of Boulogne in 1806, and have since been much employed both in field service and sieges, particularly at the bombardment of Copenhagen.

In this department are also exhibited several kinds of grape, canister, bar, chain, and other shot ; hand-grenades, a beautiful model of the magazine of a ship, another fine model of a fireship, and, in short, almost every article used either in the army or navy for the annoyance or destruction of an enemy.

Besides these there are models of the fireworks exhibited on days of public rejoicing, the most elaborate of which is the model of the Temple of Concord, erected in St. James's park in 1814, with the paintings, including a very beautiful one by Stothard (the largest he ever painted), which adorned the original structure.

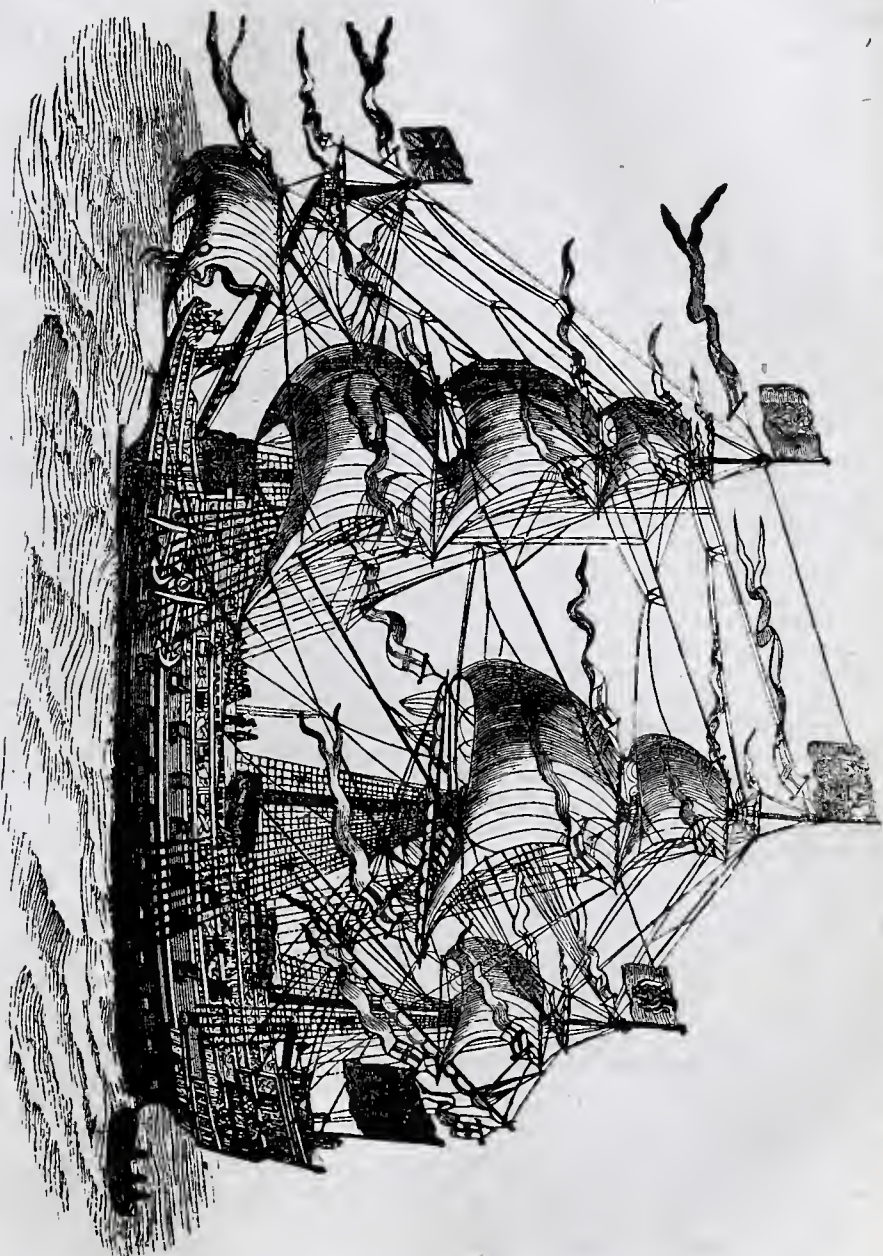
Connected with the pattern-room is the laboratory, in which the cartridges, rockets, fireworks, and other articles of chymical construction used in the service, are prepared.

Leaving this building, and proceeding to the north, the extensive range of store-houses of the royal artillery is approached. In these repositories there are generally kept complete outfitings for ten thousand horses : this is the number at present in the building ; but a short time since there were sufficient articles for twenty thousand cavalry.

These articles include saddles (arranged in heaps on the sides of a room nearly three hundred feet long), horses' bits (hanging from the ceiling, where they sparkle like the glittering stalactites of a grotto), pistols, swords, horse-shoes, whips, &c., &c. From the upper part of these warehouses the whole area of the arsenal may be seen, together with the immense tiers of cannon in the field immediately below, where there are no less than twenty-four thousand pieces of ordnance, of which nearly three thousand are of gun-metal, the remainder being of iron. These are arranged in pieces of two hundred and two different sizes. In other parts of the arsenal there are nearly three millions of cannon-balls and bomb-shells, painted and arranged in pyramidal groups.

From the arsenal a few steps will bring us to the gates of the Royal dockyard, an establishment to which Woolwich may be said principally to owe its present importance. At an early period the natural capabilities of the place were deemed admirably adapted for the construction of vessels, the river at this part being nearly a mile across, and deep enough to float vessels of the largest burthen within a very short

The "Sovereign of the Seas"



distance of the shore ; and accordingly, in the reign of Henry VIII., a royal dock-yard was established here, in which the well-known "Harry Grace à Dieu" was built in 1515. This magnificent vessel, after exciting the greatest wonder and admiration on account of its size (being then the largest vessel ever built), and the splendor of its decorations, for a period of about forty years, was at length accidentally consumed by fire, in 1553, in the very yard in which it was built.

It was not, however, until the reign of Elizabeth that the dockyard of Woolwich became of any importance. That wise princess, seeing the value of a well-appointed navy to other nations, resolved to pay more attention to her own ; and as the success of a naval expedition depends, not only on the talents and enterprise of its commanders, but in a great measure on the build and equipment of the vessels, all that the experience of the seaman and the theory of the mathematician could suggest for the improvement of naval architecture, was put to the test in the specimens which emanated from the dockyard at Woolwich.

The superior build of the vessels constructed at this place raised it to considerable importance, and it was from here that most of the ships celebrated in the victories of Drake and Hawkins, and in the voyages of Cavendish and Frobisher, were launched.

It was in the reign of Charles I., after the dockyard had been greatly enlarged and the interior economy much improved, that the magnificent vessel, "The Sovereign of the Seas," was built (p. 311). She was registered for sixteen hundred and thirty-seven tons ; measured in length two hundred and thirty-two feet, in breadth forty-eight feet, and in height from the keel to the highest point of the stern seventy-six feet. After having signalized herself in several actions during nearly sixty years, she was at last destroyed by fire at Chatham, whither she had proceeded to undergo some repairs, in the year 1696.

The dockyard increased as the importance of the navy became more apparent to succeeding sovereigns, and at the present time is of very considerable extent. It commences at the village of New Charlton on the west, and extends nearly a mile along the banks of the river to the east, at which part it closely approaches the arsenal. It contains two large dry docks for the repair of vessels, and an extensive basin, four hundred feet long, and nearly three hundred in breadth, capable of receiving vessels of the largest size. There are also extensive ranges of timber-sheds, store-houses, several masts, a large pond for masts, and others for boats. And as all the iron instruments used in the construction of ships are manufactured at this place, a large building has been erected for the purpose, provided with steam-engines of great power. The anchors, many of immense size, which have been cast and finished here, are disposed in long ranges, ready for instant employment.

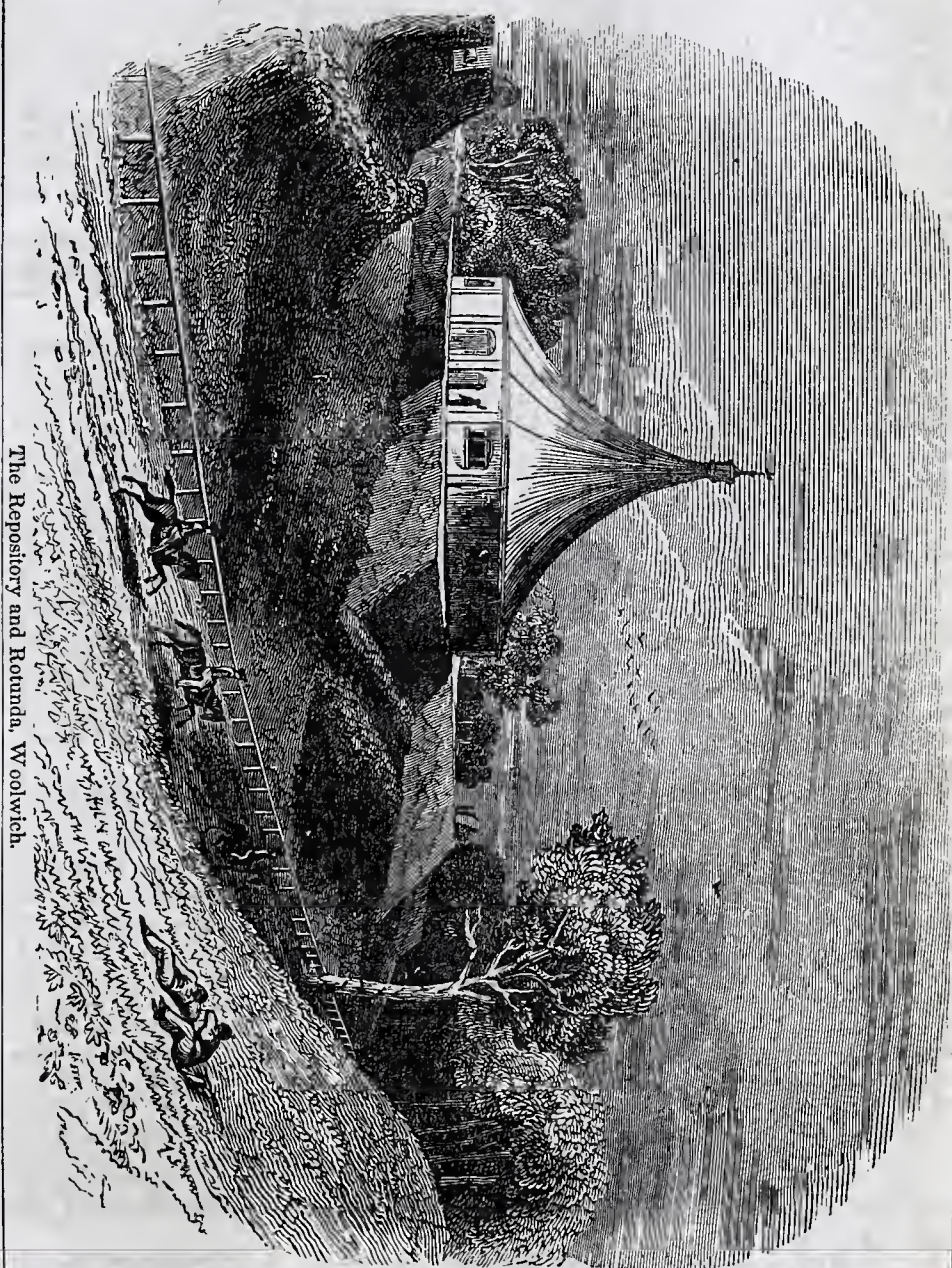
Each department is under the superintendence of a separate officer, the whole being under the direction of the board of admiralty. A commissioner, the master-attendant, the storkeeper, and the principal officers of the other departments, reside on the spot, several houses having been erected for their accommodation.

Let us now proceed to the repository and rotunda (see engraving). It is situated on the margin of Woolwich common, to the south of the town. The ground around the building is much broken, and intersected with two or three pieces of water, which afford the artillery corps opportunities for the practice of many manœuvres likely to be brought into operation during war. Embankments and fortifications have also been constructed, mounted with the various species of ordnance employed in the defence of besieged places, at which the men are exercised. They are often directed to form pontoons across the ponds, and practised in the methods adopted for the raising of sunken guns, &c.

The rotunda was originally erected in Carlton gardens by George IV., when prince regent, for the reception of the allied sovereigns on the occasion of their visit to England, in 1814, and was subsequently presented by him to the garrison at Woolwich, where it was removed to become a depository for models connected with military and naval architecture. Its form is a regular polygon of twenty-four sides, having a diameter of one hundred and twenty feet, with the roof ascending in the form of a cone to more than fifty feet.

The building, having a tent-like form, was at first wholly unsupported in the centre ; but not being considered perfectly secure, a pillar was subsequently erected as a central support.

The interior is crowded with military weapons of offence and defence. In the



The Repository and Rotunda, Woolwich.

centre, tastefully arranged around the pillar, are old English weapons, as the ancient matchlock, the wheel-lock, two-handed swords, early cannon, shields, bills and partisans, pikes, helmets, cuirases, &c., together with many trophies from foreign powers. Above these is a beautiful suit of armor, said to have belonged to the chivalrous Bayard.

Plymouth is another important naval station, besides being a thriving commercial town. It is situated at the head of the capacious haven of Plymouth sound, in Devonshire, on the east side of a tongue of land formed by the estuaries of the rivers Plym and Tamar, which here empty themselves into the sea. Essentially connected with Plymouth is Devonport, situated in the immediate neighborhood, and properly an appendage of Plymouth, though of late years distinguished by a separate name. The united population, in 1831, was 75,534. Plymouth having gradually risen from the condition of a small fishing-town to its present size, most of the streets are irregular, and by no means elegant or commodious; but the new parts of the town are handsome, and are spreading rapidly.

Plymouth carries on a considerable trade in timber with North America and the Baltic, and an intercourse has been established with the West Indies. The coasting-trade is chiefly with London, Newcastle, Newport (in Wales), and Bristol. The chief imports are coal, culm, corn, wine, and timber.

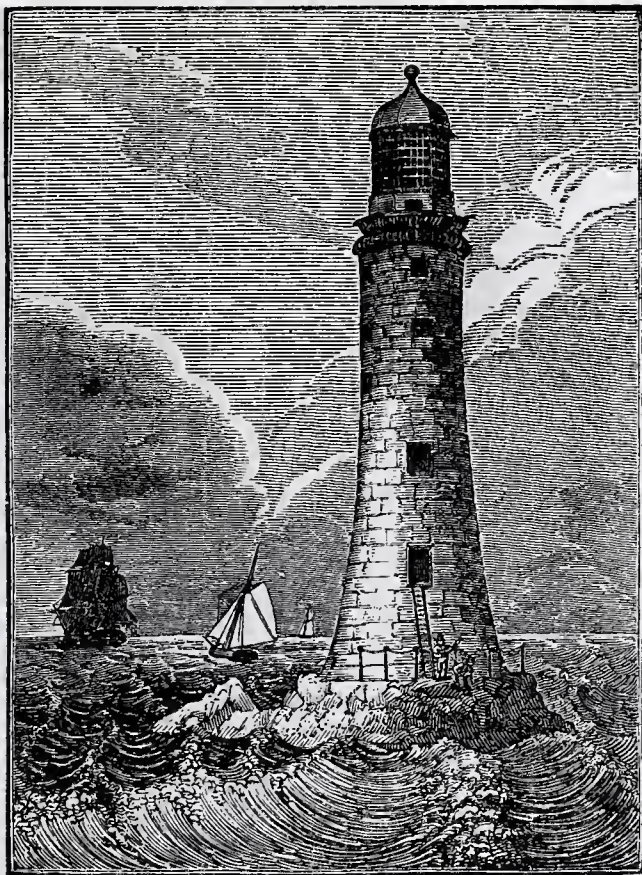
It is as a naval and military station that the town is chiefly distinguished. Situated upon a capacious and secure natural harbor, near the mouth of the English channel, it is well adapted for this purpose, fleets having a ready exit from it upon any expedition toward the Mediterranean, the Indies, or America. The dock, which is situated at Devonport (formerly on that account called Plymouth dock), extends along the bank of the Tamar, in a curve three thousand five hundred feet in length, with a width at the middle, where it is greatest, of sixteen hundred feet, and at each extremity one thousand, thus including an area of ninety-six acres. Of the fortifications connected with Plymouth, the most remarkable is the citadel, which was erected in the reign of Charles II. It is placed in a most commanding situation on the east end of the height called the Hoe, which shelters the town from the sea. It is exceedingly well fortified, and is constantly garrisoned. It contains the residence of the governor of Plymouth, and barracks for five or six hundred troops. The victualling office, an important establishment, containing storehouses, granaries, baking-houses, and cellars, for supplying the meat, bread, and liquors, required to provision the vessels of the royal navy, occupies a splendid building in the adjacent township of East Stonehouse.

The port of Plymouth is distinguished for its capacity, and the security which it affords in its several parts. It is capable of containing two thousand sail, and is one of the finest harbors in the world. It consists of three divisions or harbors: Sutton pool, immediately adjoining the town; Catwater, an extensive sheet, formed by the estuary of the Plym; and the harbor or bay of Hamoaze. At the mouth of these harbors the great bay of Plymouth sound forms an excellent roadstead, which is now completely secure by the erection of the breakwater across its entrance. This work is an insulated mole, or vast heap of stones, stretching across the entrance of the sound so far as to leave a passage for vessels at either end, and opposing a barrier to the heavy swell rolling in from the Atlantic. Its length is seventeen hundred yards, the eastern extremity being about sixty fathoms to the eastward of St. Carlos's rocks, and the western three hundred west of the Shovel rock. The middle part is continued in a straight line one thousand yards, and the two extremities incline toward the northern side of the straight part in an angle of about one hundred and twenty degrees. This great work was begun August 12, 1812. During its progress convincing proofs of its efficacy and utility were afforded. The expense of erecting the breakwater is estimated at one million one hundred and seventy-one thousand one hundred pounds.

The Eddystone Lighthouse is an important appendage to Plymouth harbor, the entrance of which would, without this beacon, be extremely dangerous (see engraving, giving a view of the eastern side).

The public buildings of Plymouth are, the customhouse, the exchange, the Athenæum, the public library, the theatre, the classical and mathematical school, the mechanics' institute, &c.

Of the two parish churches, the most ancient is that of St. Andrew, built previous to 1291, a handsome building of the Gothic order. Charles's church is also a Gothic



Eddystone Lighthouse.

structure. Among the charitable institutions which are about thirty, are a work-house, a public dispensary, an eye-infirmity, a lying-in charity, a public subscription school, almshouses, bible societies, &c.

CHAPTER XX.

TOWNS OF RESIDENCE AND RECREATION.

THE best-built town in England, and a favorite residence of the higher classes, either for recreation, or the pursuit of health, is Bath. It is situated in Somersetshire, at the distance of about one hundred and eight miles west from London, and lies in a valley divided by the river Avon. Though of great antiquity, the place came into notice and rose to importance in comparatively modern times, in consequence of possessing certain hot mineral springs, considered to be efficacious in the cure of different complaints. The water issues from the ground at a temperature of from 109° to 117° of Fahrenheit, and the quantity discharged daily from the various outlets is 184,320 gallons. The water has been analyzed, and is found to contain sulphate of lime, with considerably lesser proportions of muriate of soda, sulphate of soda, carbonic acid, and carbonate of lime, also a minute portion of silica and oxyde of iron. It is stimulating in its properties, and is said to be most successful in cases of palsy, rheumatism, gout, and cutaneous diseases. Over the springs there are ele-

gant pump-rooms and baths. The modern parts of the town are built as streets, crescents, and squares, the houses being of polished sandstone, and in some instances constructed with much taste. Living is expensive in the town during the fashionable season. The population in 1831, was 38,063.

Cheltenham competes with Bath as a fashionable resort for valetudinarians, real or imaginary. It is situated in Gloucestershire, eighty-eight miles west from London, and thirty-nine and a half northeast of Bath. The situation is exceedingly delightful, being remarkably well sheltered by the range of Coteswold hills on the northeast, and having an exposure to the south and west; it is on this account preferred to all other towns in England by persons from India and other hot climates. Besides being attractive from the salubrity and mildness of its climate, Cheltenham, like Bath, possesses mineral springs reckoned of value for medical purposes, but particularly for invalids with diseased livers. There are several springs, some of which are chalybeate, but their properties and strength are liable to variation. Cheltenham is laid out in a very ornamental manner, with walks and pleasure-grounds, and may be described as perhaps the prettiest town of a small size in England. As in Bath, the expense of living is very great. The population of the parish in 1831 was 22,942, about one half of whom belonged to the town.

Brighton, on the coast of Sussex, has risen into importance within the last sixty years, partly in consequence of a beach remarkably well adapted for sea-bathing, and partly from its attracting the regard of George, prince of Wales, who reared a marine palace here, in a Chinese style. The population in 1831 was 40,634. Brighton is an elegant and airy town, with much to render it agreeable as a place of residence for persons in affluent circumstances. The Steyne, a spacious and beautiful lawn, nearly surrounded by houses, the marine parade, and several terraces overlooking the sea, furnish delightful walks; while the baths, theatre, assembly rooms, &c., form additional attractions. There is a regular intercourse with Dieppe by steam-vessels. The chain-pier is a remarkable object: it was erected in 1823 at an expense of £30,000, and is 1,134 feet long.

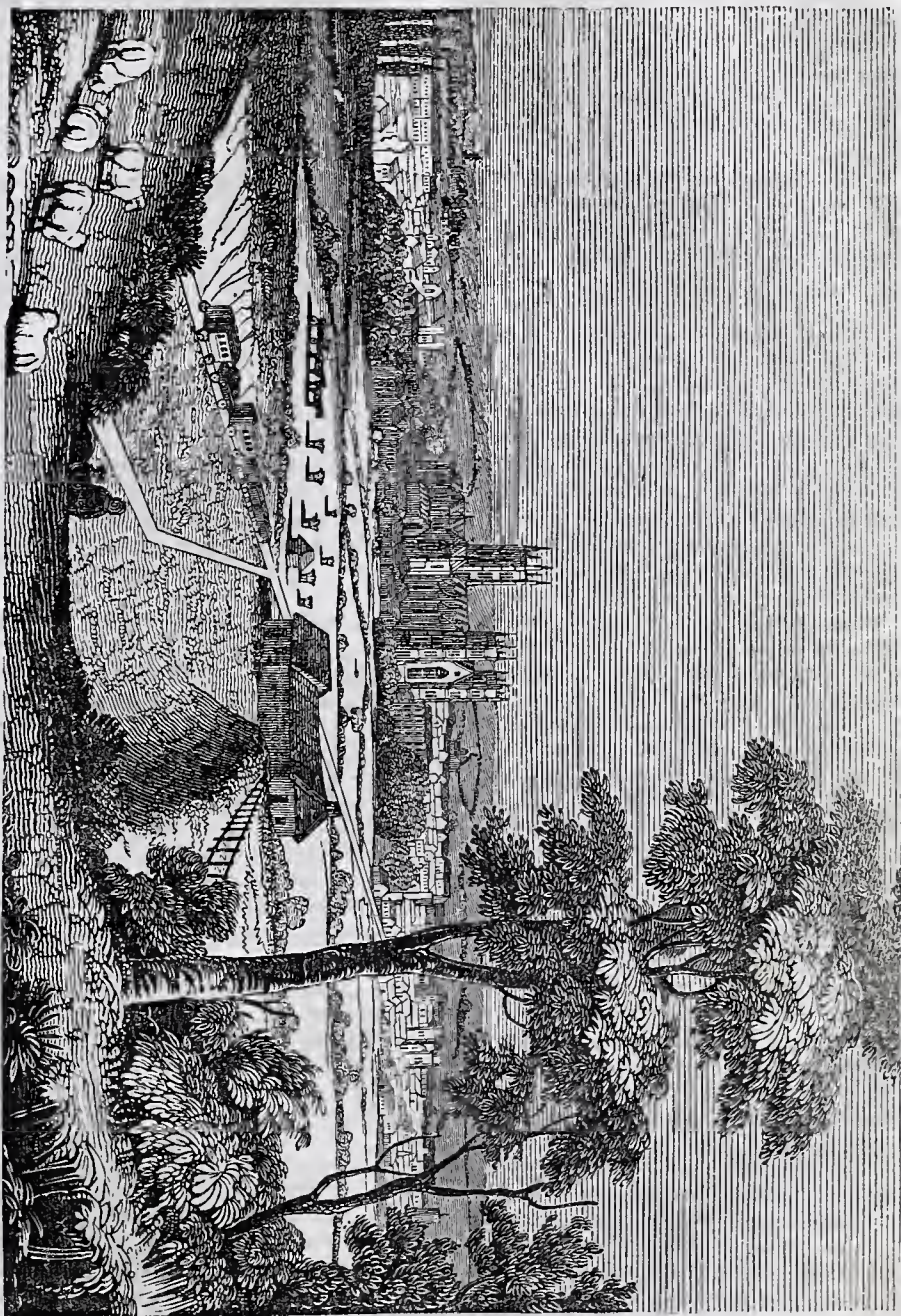
Among other towns of this class, we can only notice Herne Bay, Margate, and Ramsgate, situated on the coast of Kent, and which may be considered as the chief places of summer recreation for the inhabitants of London, to and from which steamers ply daily. Herne Bay is a place of recent date, rising into notice, and possessing a pleasant open beach, with space for promenading. Margate is a town of a much earlier date, situated in an open part of a bold line of chalky cliffs, and consists of a confused cluster of streets, with some lines of building of a more airy description in the environs. The town is well supplied with shops, bazars, and places of amusement, during the bathing season; it also possesses numerous respectable boarding-houses, where, on moderate terms, a person may reside for a short time in a very agreeable manner. At these houses, parties of pleasure are made up for the day, the expense of cars and refreshments during the excursion being defrayed by general contribution. Within a mile or two along the coast is another summer retreat called Broadstairs; and beyond it, at an equal distance, is Ramsgate. The chalk cliffs here, which are bold and precipitous, afford a high and salubrious position for the chief part of the town, and beneath there is a fine tract of sandy beach for the use of bathers. The harbor at Ramsgate is one of the best in England, and affords shelter to all kinds of vessels in the Downs.

CHAPTER XXI.

CATHEDRAL TOWNS.

OF this class of towns we can here only advert to those of more than usual importance.

Canterbury, the capital of Kent, is a city of great antiquity, having formed the seat of an ecclesiastical establishment to St. Augustine, the apostle of Christianity to Britain in the sixth century. In the tenth and eleventh centuries, the town derived



Canterbury, from the Railway.

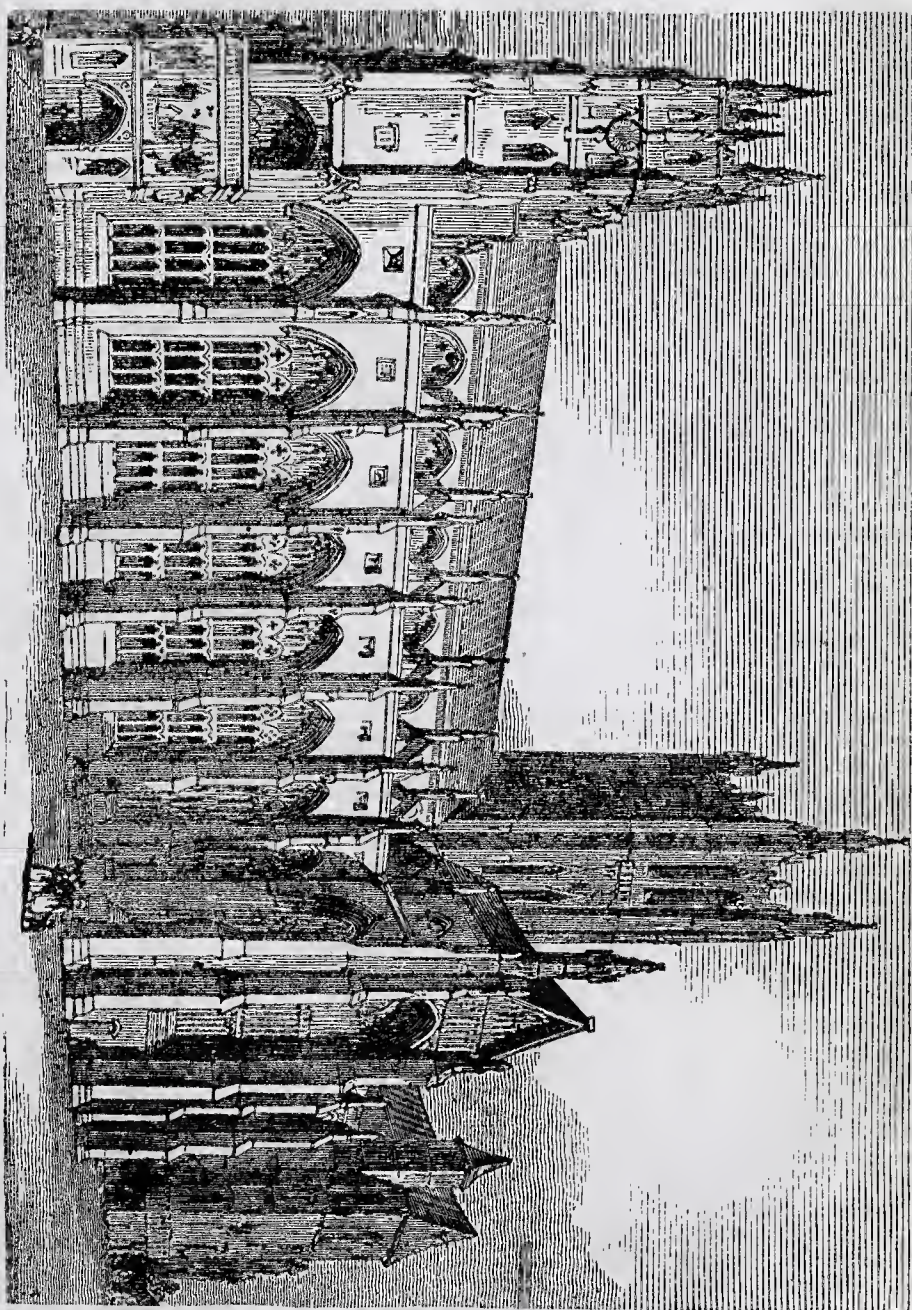
great importance from the erection or extension of a cathedral, on a most extensive scale, and of the purest Gothic architecture. In 1162, the archiepiscopal see was bestowed on the famous Becket, who enjoyed it eight years, till the period of his murder in 1170, when his shrine became an object of extraordinary reverence, and brought pilgrims in thousands from all parts of the kingdom.

The present cathedral stands mainly on the same foundation with the ancient British church which Augustine found in Canterbury on his arrival at the end of the sixth century, nor is it altogether impossible that some portion of that primitive edifice may still remain in the pile as it now exists. It is acknowledged on all hands that part of Archbishop Lanfranc's cathedral is still standing ; and the vaults under the choir appear to be of a style of architecture anterior at any rate to the Norman conquest.

The cathedral of Canterbury is built in the usual form of a cross, having, however, two transepts. Buttresses rising into pinnacles are ranged along the walls both of the nave and the transepts ; and a square tower of great beauty ascends from the intersection of the western transept and the nave. Two other towers also crown the extremities of the west front : that to the north, which had been long in a ruinous state, and the upper part of which was removed many years ago, was taken down some years since from the foundation, and is now being restored.

The cathedral of Canterbury is very spacious. The following are its principal dimensions: the length of the whole building from east to west, measured in the interior, is five hundred and fourteen feet ; of which the choir occupies not less than one hundred and eighty feet, being an extent unequalled by that of any other choir in England. The breadth of the nave with its side aisles is seventy-one feet ; and its height eighty feet. The larger transept is one hundred and fifty-four, the smaller one hundred twenty-four feet, in length from north to south. The height of the great central tower, called the Bell-Harry steeple, is two hundred and thirty-five feet ; and that of the Oxford and Arundel steeples, at the north and south extremities of the west front, about one hundred and thirty feet.

It would require far more space than we can afford to describe at length all the different parts and ornaments of the cathedral which are interesting either from their merit as productions of art, or from the historical associations with which they are connected. We can only mention shortly a few of the more remarkable. Among these is the ancient stone-screen at the entrance to the choir, the date of which is supposed to be the early part of the fourteenth century. It presents a rich display of Gothic sculpture ; and among the figures by which it is adorned are six kings wearing crowns, and holding in their hands five of them globes, and the sixth a church. The ancient stalls of the choir were removed in 1734, when the present were substituted in their place. Some parts of the ornamental work are supposed to have been executed by the celebrated Gibbons, by whom the admirable carvings of the fittings in the choir of St. Paul's were cut. Behind the choir, instead of the Lady chapel, or chapel dedicated to the Virgin, which usually occupies this place in other cathedrals, is the chapel of the Holy Trinity, erected about 1184 in honor of St. Thomas à Becket, and long the most attractive part of the church, as containing his shrine. " This shrine," says Stow, " was builded about a man height, all of stone, then upward of timber plain, within which was a chest of iron, containing the bones of Thomas Becket, scull and all, with the wound of his death, and the piece cut out of his scull laid in the same wound. The timber-work of this shrine, on the outside, was covered with plates of gold, damasked with gold wire, which ground of gold was again covered with jewels of gold, as rings, ten or twelve cramped with gold wire into the said ground of gold, many of those rings having stones in them, brooches, images, angels, precious stones, and great pearls." Hither, in 1220, the body of the saint was removed from the crypt underground, where it had till then been deposited ; the pope's legate, the archbishops of Canterbury and Rheims, and divers other bishops and abbots, bearing the coffin on their shoulders, amidst a display of all that was most gorgeous and imposing in the pomps and splendors of the ancient ritual. The king himself, Henry III., was present. The expenditure of Stephen Langton, the archbishop, is said to have been so profuse on this occasion, that he left a debt upon the revenues of the see which was not discharged till the time of his fourth successor. The cost, however, was in time amply repaid. Becket's shrine continued to draw an immense revenue of gifts to the church as long as the old religion lasted. Erasmus, who was admitted to a sight of the treasure deposited in the sacred chamber a short

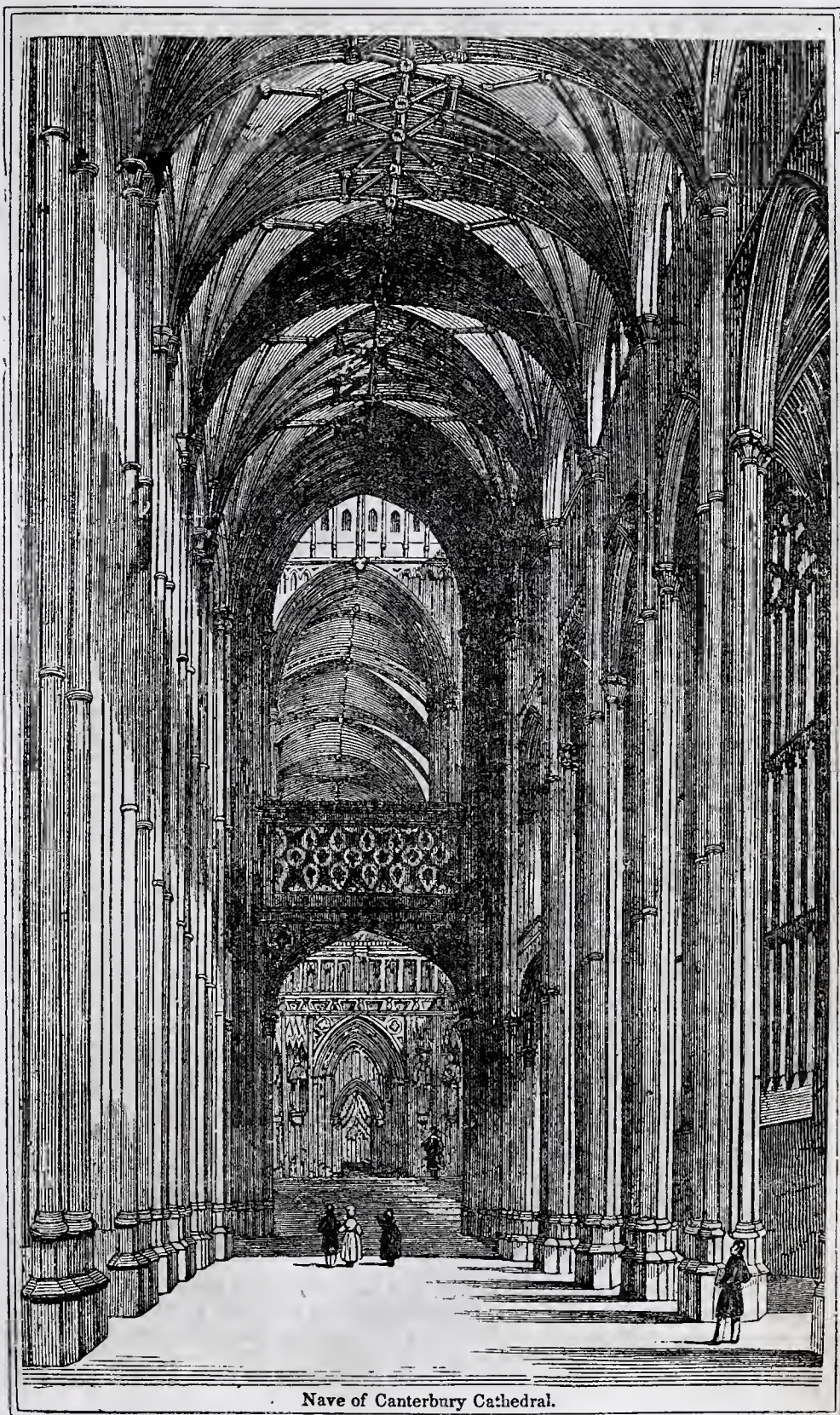


Canterbury Cathedral—south side.

time before the reformation, tells us, that under a coffin of wood, enclosing another of gold, which was drawn up from its place by ropes and pulleys, he beheld an amount of riches the value of which he could not estimate. Gold, he says, was the meanest thing to be seen; the whole place shone and glittered with the rarest and most precious jewels, most of which were of an extraordinary size, some being larger than the egg of a goose. At the dissolution, Henry VIII. seized upon all this wealth. Stow says, that "the spoil in gold and precious stones filled two great chests, one of which six or seven strong men could do no more than convey out of the church at once." One of the precious stones, called the Regal of France, which had been presented by Louis VII., he set and wore as a thumb-ring. At the same time he ordered the remains of Becket to be burned, and the ashes scattered to the winds. The bones of St. Dunstan and St. Anselm, which were also preserved in the cathedral of Canterbury, were probably treated in the same way. The only trace of the shrine of the martyr that now remains is afforded by the pavement around the spot where it stood, which is worn down by the knees of the crowds of worshippers that, during more than three centuries, offered here their oblations and their prayers. The spot, we may here mention, which is pointed out as that on which Becket was assassinated, is in the northern portion of the western transept. That part of the church is on this account called the Martyrdom. At the east end of the chapel of the Holy Trinity is another of a circular form, called Becket's Crown, probably from the manner in which the ribs of the arched roof meet in the centre. It appears not to have been finished at the time of the reformation; and the works being then suspended, it remained in that state till about the middle of the last century, when it was completed at the expense of a private citizen.

In the chapel of the Holy Trinity stands the ancient patriarchal chair in which the archbishops are enthroned, and which, according to tradition, was the regal seat of the Saxon kings of Kent. It is formed of three pieces of gray marble, cut in panels, the under part being solid, like that of a seat cut out of a rock. In this chapel also, among other monuments, is that of the Black Prince, still in wonderful preservation after the lapse of nearly four centuries and a half. On a handsome sarcophagus of gray marble, richly sculptured with coats-of-arms and other ornaments, lies the figure of the warrior in copper gilt, with his face displayed, but the rest of his body cased in armor. The sword, which had at one time been hung by his girdle, now lies loose by his side. Covering the whole is a wooden embattled canopy, and suspended over this are some of the actual weapons and other armor worn by the prince: his gauntlets, his helmet and crest, a surcoat of velvet elaborately adorned with gilding and embroidery, and the scabbard of his dagger, displaying the arms of England and France. It is commonly said that the weapon itself was taken away by Oliver Cromwell; but this tradition has probably arisen merely from its having disappeared in the civil confusions of Cromwell's time. The shield of the prince hangs on a pillar near the head of the tomb. Among the other tombs in this the most sacred part of the church, are that of Henry IV. and his second wife Queen Jane of Navarre, and those of Archbishop Courtney, Cardinal Châtillon (of the Coligny family), and Cardinal Pole. In other parts of the church are the monuments of Archbishops Chicheley, Bourchier, Walter, Peckham, Warham, Ludbury, and many other personages connected with it in ancient times.

A very curious part of the cathedral is what is called the Undercroft, being the crypt over which the choir is raised. It is undoubtedly the most ancient part of the building; and as the architecture appears to be Saxon, it is supposed to have been part of the older church left standing by Lanfranc. The walls are perfectly destitute of ornament, and everything presents the aspect of the most venerable antiquity. Of the pillars, some are round, others twisted, and neither in shafts nor capitals are there two of them alike. The circumference of most of the shafts is about four feet, and the height of shaft, plinth, and capital, only six feet and a half. From these spring semi-circular arches, making a vaulted roof of the height of fourteen feet. The portion of this crypt under the west end of the choir was long in the possession of a congregation of Calvinists, which originally consisted of refugees driven from the Netherlands by the persecutions of the duke of Alva, in the reign of Edward VI., and afterward increased by a number of French Huguenots, who sought an asylum in England on the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. They were principally silk-weavers; and their numbers were at one time very con-



Nave of Canterbury Cathedral.

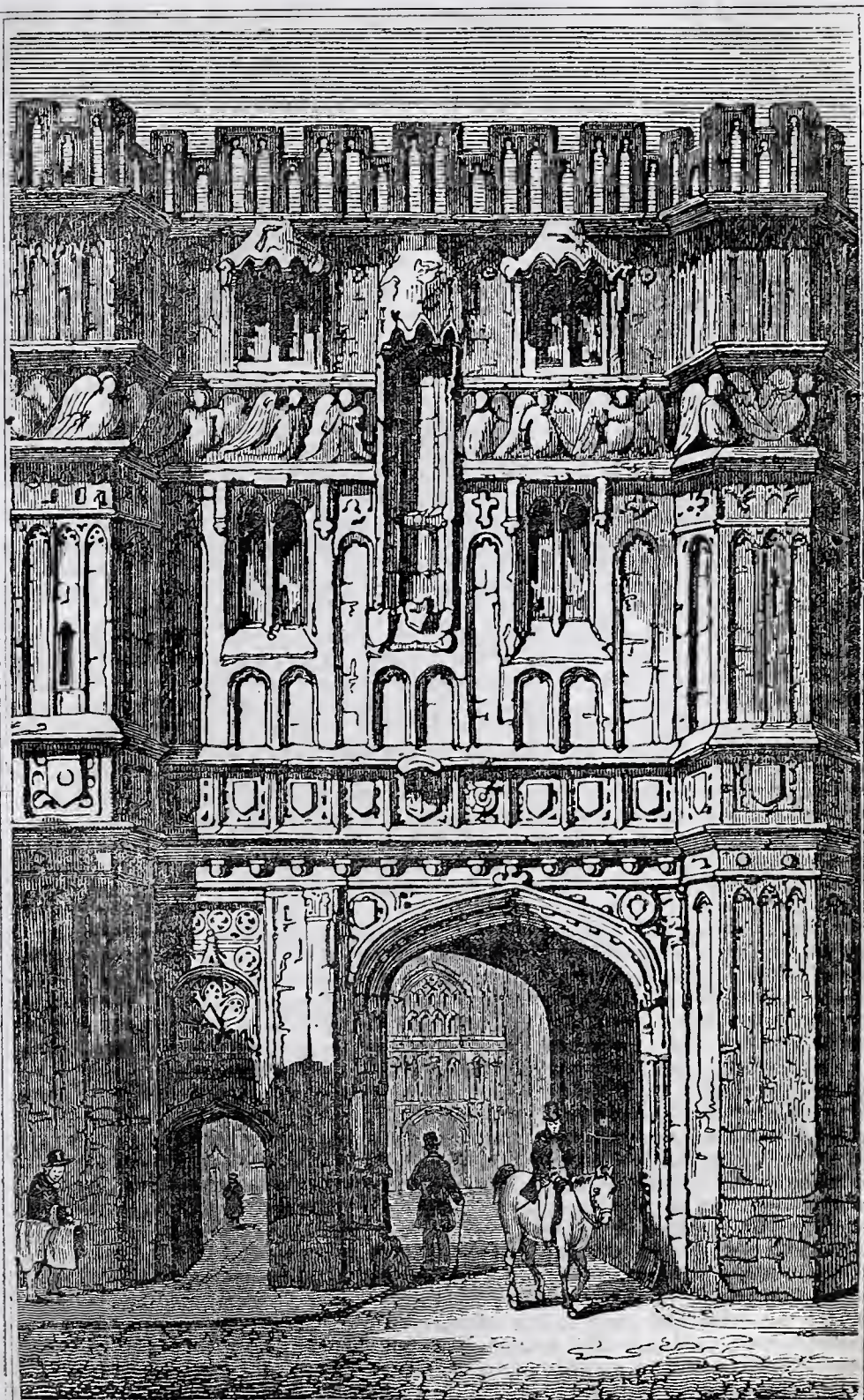
siderable, but they latterly greatly diminished. Their place of meeting for divine worship in the cathedral is said to have been granted to them by Queen Elizabeth



Capital of a Column in the Crypt.

There still remain in several of the windows of the church some fine specimens of ancient painted glass; but the productions of this most fragile of the arts, with which it was formerly very richly adorned, were in great part mercilessly destroyed during the fanatic fury of the seventeenth century. A magnificent window in the northern wing of the western transept, in particular, suffered severely. The relation of its demolition has been given by the person who was himself most active in the work—an individual of the name of Richard Culmer (but more commonly called “Blue Dick”), who, on the recommendation of the mayor of Canterbury, was appointed by the House of Commons one of the six preachers in the cathedral, after the abolition of episcopacy. This zealot writes, “The commissioners fell presently to work on the great idolatrous window, standing on the left hand as you go up into the choir; for which window some affirm many thousand pounds have been offered by outlandish papists. In that window was now the picture of God the Father, and of Christ, besides a large crucifix, and the picture of the Holy Ghost in the form of a dove, and of the twelve apostles; and in that window were seven large pictures of the Virgin Mary, in seven several glorious appearances; as of the angels lifting her into heaven, and the sun, moon, and stars, under her feet; and every picture had an inscription under it, beginning with *Gaude, Maria*; as ‘*Gaude, Maria, Sponsa Dei*,’ that is, ‘Rejoice, Mary, thou Spouse of God.’ There were in this window many other pictures of popish saints, as of St. George, &c.; but their prime cathedral saint, Archbishop Becket, was most rarely pictured in that window, in full proportion, with cope, rochet, mitre, crosier, and his pontificalibus. And in the foot of that huge window was a title, intimating that window to be dedicated to the Virgin Mary.” In afterward describing his own share in the work, he lets out that he was not a little vain of the performance, although he withholds his name: “A minister,” he says, “was on the top of the city ladder, near sixty steps high, with a whole pike in his hand, rattling down proud Becket’s glassy bones, when others then present would not venture so high.” The modes in which self-admiration exhibits itself are very various.

But we must now leave the cathedral, and proceed to the other buildings which we have also to notice. Before quitting the quarter, however, in which the metropolitan church is situated, we must direct attention to the fine specimen of a kind of architecture in which our ancestors greatly delighted—the Precinct Gate—of the present appearance of which, worn and half obliterated by time, but still majestic,



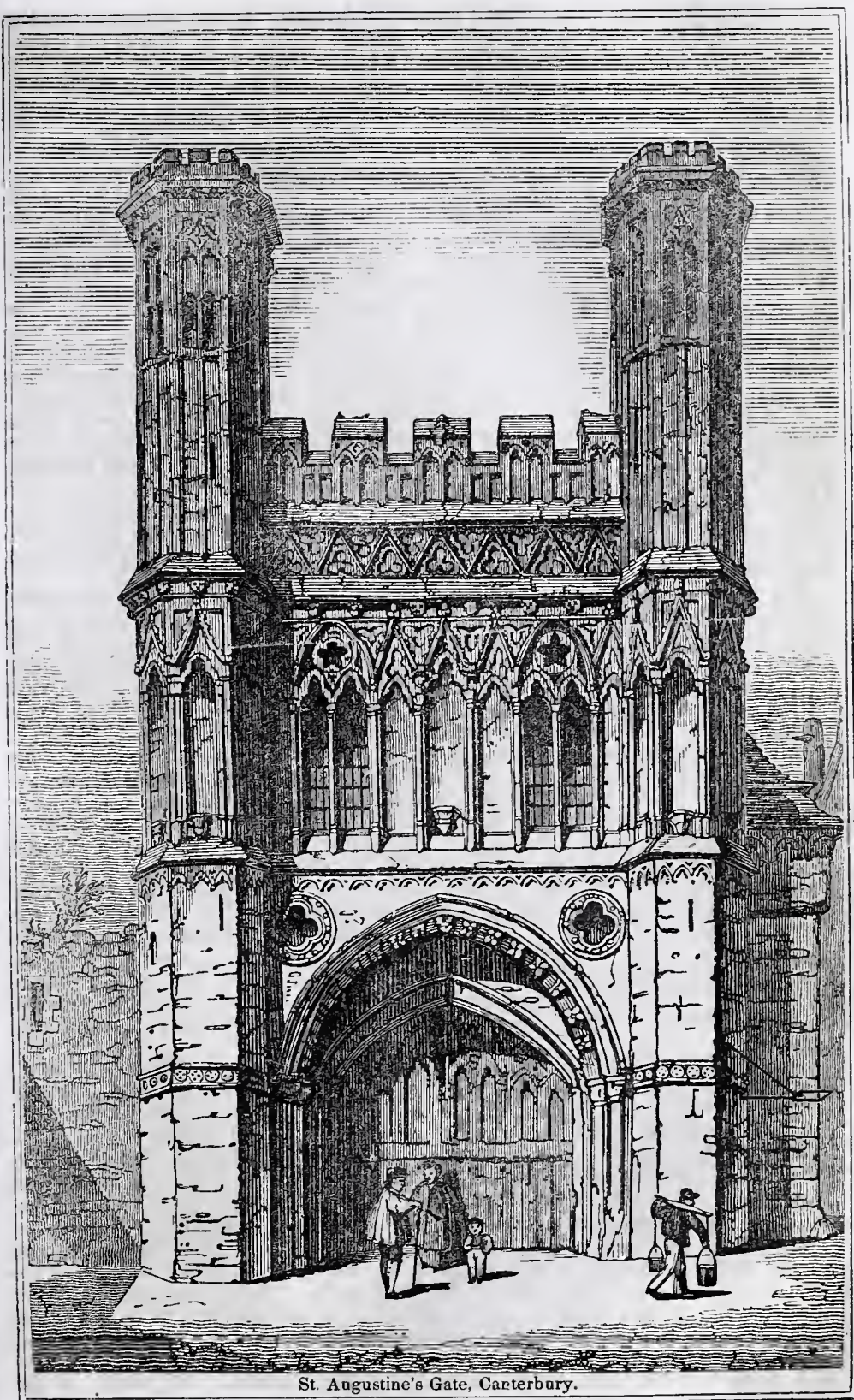
Cathedral Precinct Gateway, Canterbury.

our engraving furnishes a faithful representation. It forms the principal entrance, that from the southwest corner, to the extensive court in which the cathedral stands, surrounded by the prebendal houses, the deanery, what was the archiepiscopal palace, and other buildings connected with the establishment of the church. It opens upon the ancient avenue from the High street, called Mercery lane, where, in the Chequer inn, occupying more than half the west side, and extending a considerable way down the High street, and in other large tenements adjoining, were formerly lodged many of the pilgrims who crowded hither from all parts to pay their devotions at the shrine of St. Thomas. The gate is correctly described by Somner, in his "History of the Cathedral," as "a very goodly, strong, and beautiful structure, and of excellent artifice." From an inscription over the arch, now nearly illegible, it appears to have been built in the year 1517. Of the space within the precinct, a considerable part is occupied by the cemetery of the cathedral, and the remainder which is not covered by buildings is for the most part laid out in gardens. It may form about a fifth part of the whole city within the walls. Of the archbishop's palace, which stood on the west side, little is now remaining. The great court has been converted partly into gardens and partly into a timber-yard; and a private dwelling-house has been formed out of the porch of the great hall. There are a considerable number of private houses, and also of shops, within the precinct.

Several of the old city gates of Canterbury were venerable for their antiquity; but they have now, we believe, all been removed, with the exception of that called Westgate, at the northwest extremity of the High street, over which is the city prison. At the opposite extremity of the same street was Ridingtongate, crossing the road to Dover, near to which were two arches of Roman brick and architecture. At Worthgate, forming the termination of Castle street, on the southwest, was another Roman arch; and there was another at Queningate, leading out from the east side of the cathedral precinct.

Directly facing this last-mentioned entrance stands the very handsome structure of which we give an engraving (p. 321)—the great gate of the now ruined monastery of St. Augustine. This monastery is commonly believed to have been originally founded by St. Augustine on ground granted to him by King Ethelbert, and to have been at first dedicated to St. Peter and St. Paul. It was St. Dunstan who, in the year 978, dedicated it anew to these apostles, and also to St. Augustine. Speaking of the two establishments of Christ Church and St. Augustine's, Lambard, in his "Perambulation of Kent" (1596), says: "The monks of the which places were as far removed from all mutual love and society, as the houses themselves were near linked together, either in regard of the time of their foundation, the order of their profession, or the place of their situation. And, therefore, in this part it might well be verified of them, which was wont to be commonly said, '*Unicum arbustum non alit duos erithacos*;'—One cherry-tree sufficeth not two jays." For indeed one whole city, nay rather one whole shire and county, could hardly suffice the pride and ambitious avarice of such two irreligious synagogues; the which, as in all places they agreed to enrich themselves by the spoil of the laity, so in no place agreed they one with another; but each seeking everywhere and by all ways to advance themselves, they moved continual and that most fierce and deadly war, for lands, privileges, relics, and such like vain worldly pre-eminences; insomuch as he that will observe it shall find that universally the chronicles of their own houses contain for the most part nothing else but suing for exemptions, procuring of relics, struggling for offices, wrangling for consecrations, and pleading for lands and possessions." In another place, having occasion to notice one of their early quarrels, he again returns to the subject: "Thus you see how soon after the foundation these houses were at dissension, and for how small trifles they were ready to put on arms, and to move great and troublesome tragedies; neither do I find that ever they agreed after, but were evermore at continual brawling within themselves, either suing before the king or appealing to the pope, and that for matters of more stomach than importance; as, for example, whether the abbot of St. Augustine's should be consecrated or blessed in his own church or in the other's; whether he ought to ring his bells at service, before the other had rung theirs; whether he and his tenants owed suit to the bishop's court; and such like, wherein it can not be doubted but that they consumed inestimable treasure for maintaining of their most popish pride and wilfulness."

The small portion of the monastery which now remains adjoins the great gateway; but at the dissolution of the religious houses it was so extensive a building



St. Augustine's Gate, Carterbury.

that Henry VIII. seized upon it as a palace for himself. It was afterward granted to Cardinal Pole for life, by Queen Mary. On his decease it reverted to the crown; and, in 1573, Queen Elizabeth, having paid a visit to Canterbury, kept her court here.

This building afterward came into the possession of Lord Wotton, whose lady, after her husband's death, received Charles II. here on his way to London, at the Restoration. From her it is still commonly called Lady Wotton's palace. The whole area comprehended within the enclosure of the monastery is about sixteen acres. In the fifth edition of Mr. Gostling's work, printed about thirty years ago, it is said: "The west front of the monastery extends about 250 feet, and the walls which enclose the whole precincts are standing; the great gate has buildings adjoining, which once had some handsome apartments, and particularly a bed-chamber, with a ceiling very curiously painted. The whole is now let to one who keeps a public-house; and, having plenty of excellent water, this apartment is converted to a brew-house, the steam of which has miserably defaced that fine ceiling. The rest of the house he has fitted up for such customers as choose to spend their time there, having turned the great court-yard into a bowling-green, the fine chapel adjoining to the north side of the church into a five's-court, with a skittle-ground near it; and the great room over the gate to a cock-pit." A short distance to the south-east of the gate stands a fragment known by the name of Ethelbert's tower, which appears to have been a portion of the old abbey church. Not far from this was erected some years ago a city and county hospital for the relief of the sick and lame poor. It stands near the middle of the area. To the east of that again is a small edifice of great antiquity, called St. Pancras's chapel, the materials and architecture of which appear to be Roman, and which, according to tradition, was King Ethelbert's private chapel, in which he worshipped his ancestral gods before his conversion to Christianity. It is only thirty feet long by twenty-one in breadth.

But the most interesting monument of antiquity in Canterbury, and one of the most interesting in the kingdom, is the church of St. Martin, at some distance east from the chapel of St. Pancras, and beyond the precinct of the monastery. It stands on the side of a hill, rising on the left hand of the road leading to Deal, within half a mile of the city walls. The body of this church, which is still used for divine service, is built of Roman bricks; and the character of the architecture, although about that there has been much difference of opinion, has been thought to concur in indicating that its erection must have preceded the Saxon invasion. It is probable, at any rate, that it was built of the materials, and on the site, of a Roman edifice. Bede states that Augustine, on his arrival, found two ancient Christian churches at Canterbury, the one within the city in its eastern quarter, and the other at a short distance without the walls. The former was, no doubt, that which was eventually converted into the cathedral, and the other this church of St. Martin; or, at least, the older building in the same place, out of the materials of which the present church was constructed. Here Queen Bertha is said to have had the services of religion performed to herself and her Christian attendants by her chaplain Luidhard, before the arrival of the Roman missionary; and it was here also that Augustine first performed mass, the other church within the city not having been opened till it was enlarged and repaired. A very ancient font still exists in St. Martin's church, which is asserted to have been that used at the baptism of King Ethelbert.

Such are the principal memorials of its ancient greatness which are now left to this venerable ecclesiastical metropolis. Our limits have enabled us rather to note rapidly the chief points of interest presented by each than to describe any of them fully. A complete account of the cathedral alone would furnish matter for a volume, and the subject has indeed occupied several large volumes. The early history of some others of these old buildings, again, carries us so far into the deepest night of the past, that, although there is little to relate, there is, on that very account, the more to conjecture, and the wider field for the imagination to expatiate in. In traversing the streets of Canterbury, we tread ground which has probably been deemed holy and famous since religion, in any form, first set up her temples in the land, or shed a mystic sanctity over hill and grove. There is reason to believe that the first Christian churches were usually, if not always, planted on those sites which superstition had previously consecrated in the hearts of the people. Besides, it can hardly be doubted that Canterbury was a Roman station; and if so, it was most likely a British town before the arrival of the Romans. The position of the

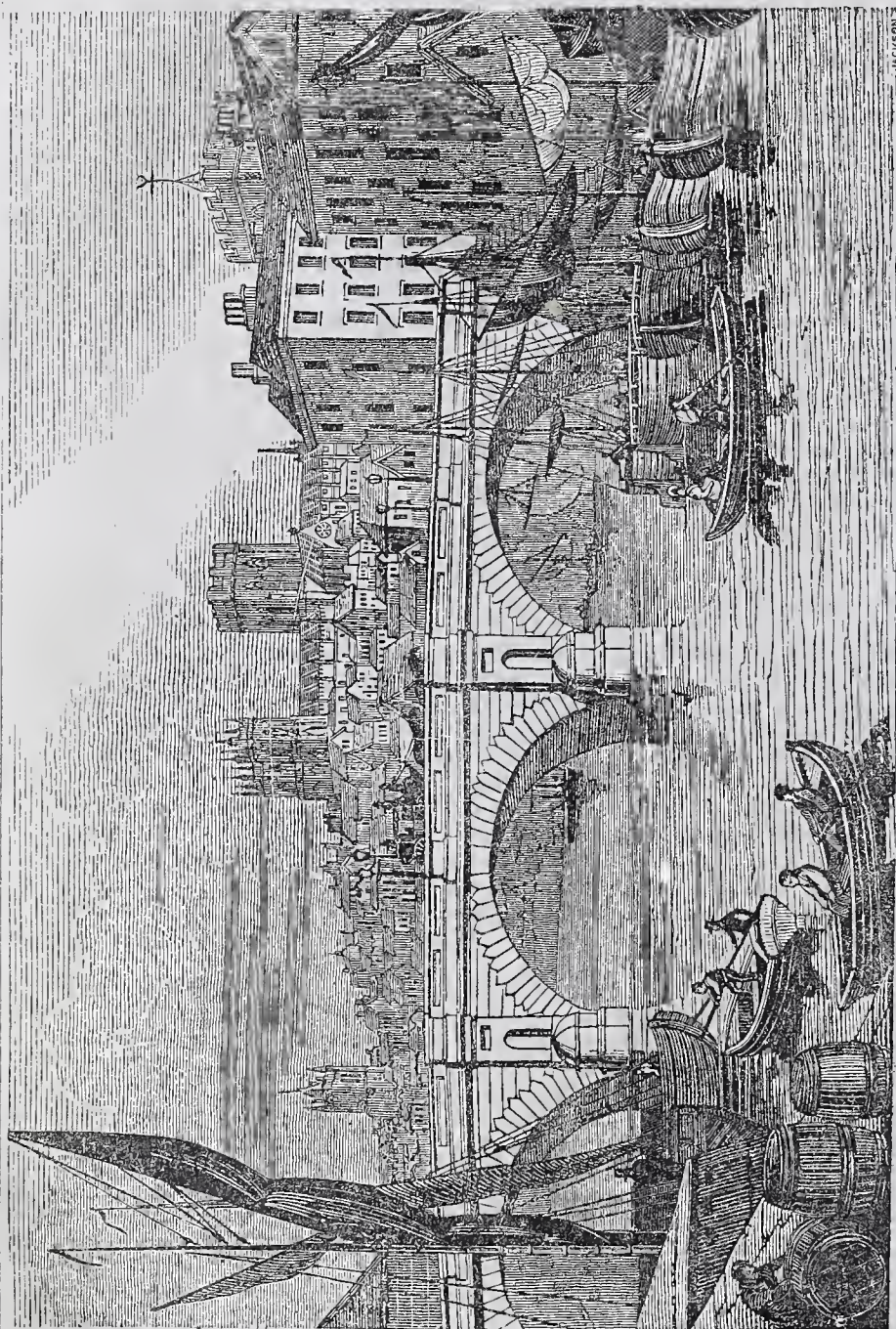
place would point it out for a settlement on the first occupation of the country—situated, especially as it was, in the district that was probably first seized upon and peopled. The barbarian rights of druidism, shadowing them with gloom and fear, may therefore have first given distinction to the spots on which now rise the cathedral and the old church of St. Martin, monuments of the religion of purity, and peace, and hope. But if the vision of these primitive times is dim and uncertain, there was at least a long subsequent period during which Canterbury stood in celebrity and glory among the foremost of the cities of the earth. The history of a great part of the middle ages is so nearly a blank, or at least is marked by so few events that interest us in the present day, that we are apt to form a very inadequate conception of the length of that tract of time. The histories of Greece and Rome have been familiarized to our minds in such amplitude of detail, that we make a sufficient allowance for the space in the chronology of the world over which they extend; and for a similar reason we are still less given to contract within too narrow bounds our estimate of the period comprehended under what may be strictly called modern history. The Reformation, for instance, seems to us now a very old event; and the time that has since elapsed, a long stretch of years. It appears like all the history we have, with the exception of a portion hardly worth attention, since the dissolution of the western empire. Yet that overlooked portion is in reality more than three times as long as the other, which we allow almost exclusively to fill our imaginations. If we are, therefore, to take a full view of what Canterbury has been, we must carry our contemplation back over not only her three last centuries of comparative obscurity and decay, but her longer preceding period of renown and splendor. At the Reformation, the first thronging of the world's multitudes to the shrine of Becket was an older event than the Reformation is now: and from the Reformation back to the arrival of St. Augustine, was three times as long a retrospect as it is from the present day to the Reformation.

The town of Canterbury is old, and, like most cathedral towns, is a dull and formal place of residence, with a proportion of genteel inhabitants. It is, however, neat and clean, and is surrounded by a fertile and pleasant tract of country. It has a number of large hotels and posting-houses, to accommodate the numerous travellers passing between the metropolis and Dover, the chief out-port for France; but since the completion of the railway connecting Dover with London, and which does not touch Canterbury, these will, in all likelihood, be entirely dispensed with. The distance from London is fifty-six miles, and from Dover sixteen. The only object of attraction in the town, besides the cathedral, is a pleasure-ground called the Dane-john, a corruption of the word donjon, such a building having once occupied the spot, in connexion with the city walls. The area of the field is laid out with an avenue of trees, and is principally otherwise a grassy esplanade, open freely to all the inhabitants. In 1790, the field was presented by Mr. Alderman James Simmonds for the use and recreation of the inhabitants in all time coming, an act of generosity deserving the highest commendation. The population of Canterbury in 1831 was 14,463.

The ancient city of York, considered as the second in the kingdom in dignity—the chief town of the county, and the cathedral city of the archiepiscopal diocese bearing its name—is situated at the confluence of the rivers Foss and Ouse, in one of the richest and most extensive plains in England. Its population in 1831 was 25,359.

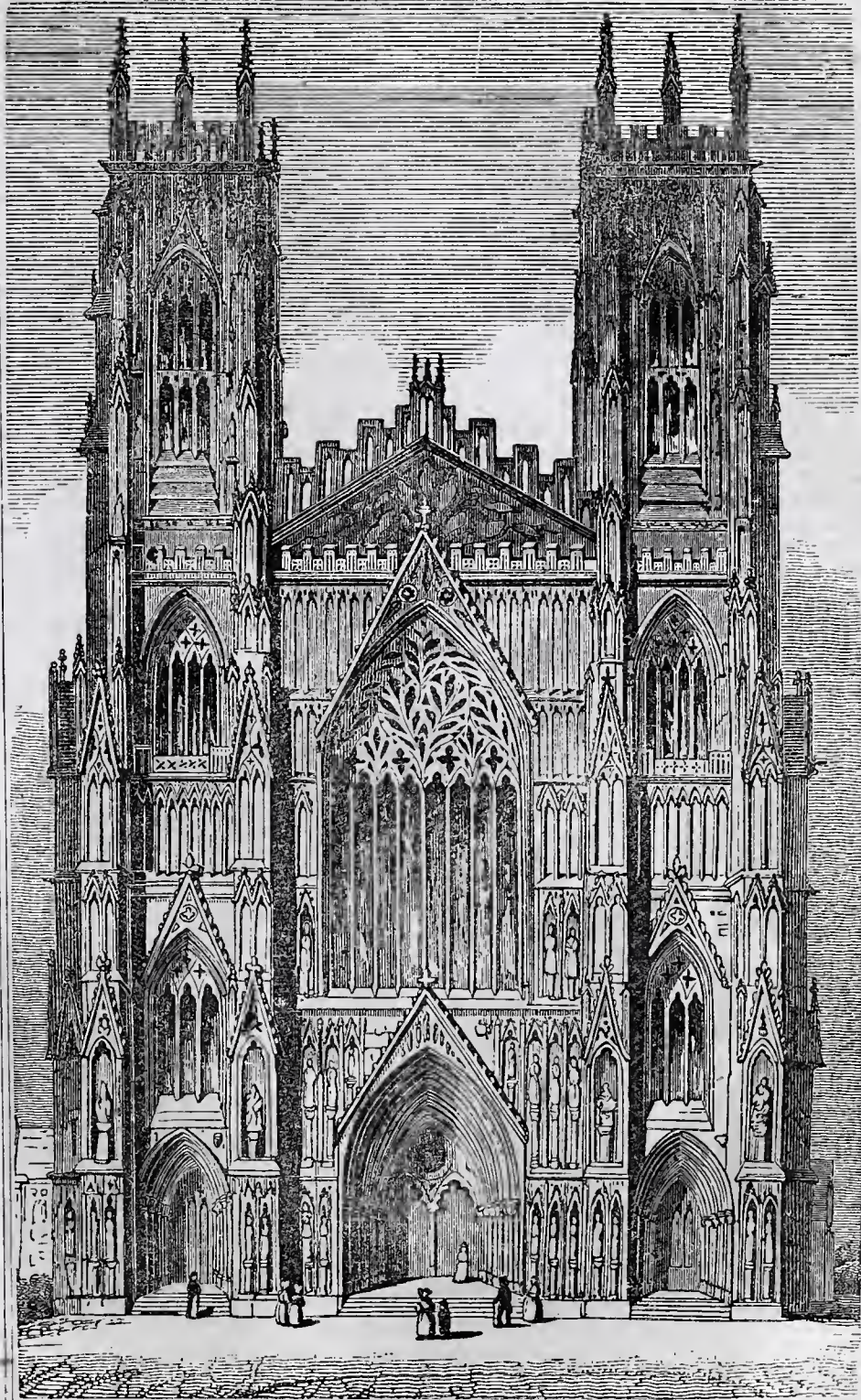
York, whatever its first rise might be, was a city of the Romans, and occupied by Roman citizens as a colony. It was successively the seat of Adrian, Severus, and other emperors: Severus died here, in the year 210. At the time of the Norman conquest, it was a city of considerable consequence and size. This eminence it retained for several centuries; but latterly it has sunk into a mere county and cathedral town, that is to say, a place where a considerable number of legal and ecclesiastical functionaries reside, and from which articles of necessity and luxury are diffused over a neighboring rural district.

It is entered by four principal gates or bars, has six bridges, a cathedral, twenty-three churches, besides places of worship for various dissenting bodies; a guildhall, county-hall, and other public buildings. The most remarkable object by many degrees is the cathedral, or minster, a most superb specimen of Gothic architecture, measuring in length five hundred and twenty-four and one fourth feet; in breadth across the transepts, two hundred and twenty-two feet; the nave being in height ninety-nine, and the grand tower two hundred and thirteen feet. The various parts



JACKSON

City of York.



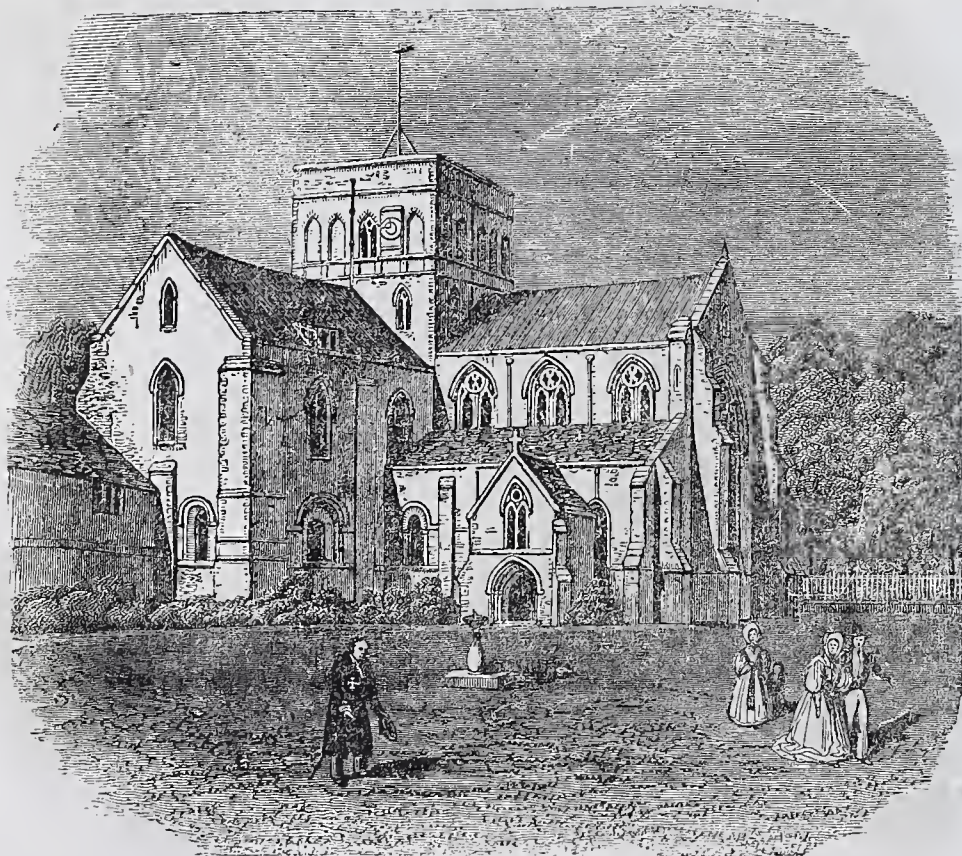
York Miuster.

were built at different times between 1227 and 1377. The parts most admired are the east window and the screen dividing the choir from the body of the church. This window consists of upward of two hundred compartments of stained glass, containing representations of the Supreme Being, saints, and events recorded in Scripture. The screen is a piece of carved wood-work in a highly ornamental style. The chapter-house is also much admired: it is a magnificent structure, of an octagonal form, sixty-three feet in diameter and sixty-eight feet in height. York minster has, within the last few years, twice suffered severely from fire.

York was at one time a commercial town of some importance, conducting trade by means of the river Ouse, which is navigable for vessels of one hundred and twenty tons burden. It still possesses a few small manufactures.

Winchester, a town of great antiquity in Hampshire, at the distance of sixty-two miles from London, is situated in the bottom of a rich grassy vale, through which flows the Itchin, a small river which issues into the sea at Southampton. There was a town here before the Christian era, and it afterward became the principal city of the Danish, Saxon, and Norman dynasties. It was the scene of Alfred and Canute's glories; and here, with innumerable princes, bishops, and abbots, they lie interred. Till the revolution, it continued a chief place of residence of the royal family; a palace built by the Stuarts is now used as a barrack for soldiers.

In the reign of Edward III., in 1366, Winchester became the episcopal see of the celebrated William of Wykeham, who greatly improved the cathedral, and instituted a college for the education of youth. The cathedral has undergone various mutations; but, being lately repaired and cleaned, is now one of the finest structures of the kind in Britain. The splendid mausoleum of William of Wykeham, in one of its aisles, is an object of great interest. At a short distance from the cathedral are placed the venerable buildings composing the college of Wykeham, at which a number of young gentlemen are educated and prepared for the university. Another highly interesting object of antiquity is the hospital of St. Cross, situated about one



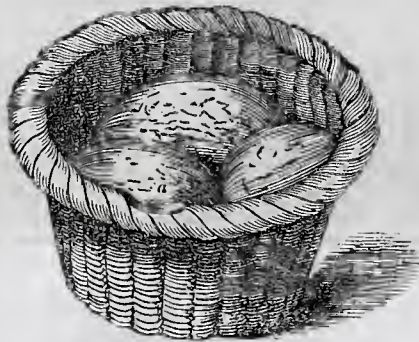
Chapel and Hospital of St. Cross.

mile down the Itchin. Founded by Henry de Blois, bishop of Winchester, and brother of King Stephen, in 1136, St. Cross is the most perfect specimen remaining in England of the conventual establishments of the middle ages, and affords a residence and means of subsistence to thirteen indigent old men. The chapel, the portion of buildings upon which the principal labor and cost appear to have been expended, is in the cathedral style; that is to say, it consists of a nave and side aisles, with a chancel and transepts, and a huge and massy Norman tower over the intersection, which has originally formed a lantern to throw a dim oblique light upon the high altar, but it is now divided off by floors. The leads of the tower can be ascended without much difficulty; and from them there is a very fine view of the rich meadows around, the Southampton railway, the city, cathedral, and college of Winchester, and the valley of the Itchen, upward and downward:

Externally the building is plain, but the different parts of it are admirably proportioned; and the whiteness of its color renders it a striking object as contrasted with the rich green of the meadows and the dark foliage of the trees. The towers, and all the eastern turrets, which appear to be in very nearly the same state as they were left by the architects of De Blois, are of squared stone, joined in the neatest and most durable manner.

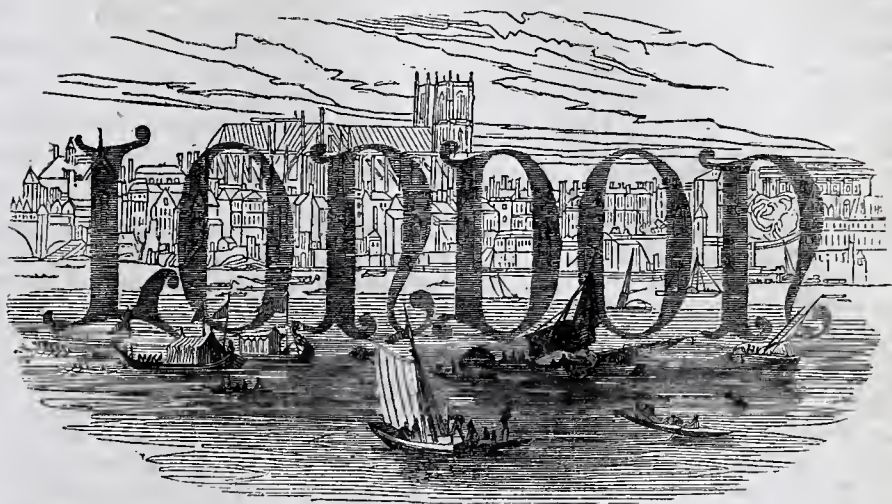
The western parts, which have undergone alteration and repair in times more recent, have not the same air of firmness and durability about them; for they are in many places composed of flints and hard cement, which, though in reality, one of the most lasting kinds of building, especially when alternated with binding courses of stones or well-burnt bricks, as we find it in the Roman remains in this part of England, has not the same appearance of durability as regular courses of squared stone. The early castle-building Normans of the age of the Conqueror, and the two or three preceding ones, are unrivalled, even at the present day, for the solidity and permanence of their masonry. This is proved not only in the Norman part of the chapel of St. Cross, but in the tower and transepts of the cathedral of Winchester, which were built by Walkelin, the cousin of the Conqueror, which were erected about half a century before. On the outside, these specimens of the most substantial building are a little weather-beaten, and gray in some places with lichen; but not a stone is honeycombed, not a joint has opened, nor is there a single set in the foundations or crack in the superstructure throughout the whole. In the inside they have the same freshness of appearance as if they had been built only a few years ago. The interior of De Blois's building, in the chapel of St. Cross, has been daubed pretty liberally with whitewash, so that its general surface can not be seen; but judging from what appears through this unseemly coating, we would be disposed to conclude that the masonry here is as proof against time as that of Walkelin in the cathedral.

Winchester is composed of a variety of old streets, and seems among the least improved towns in England. Latterly it has been inspired with a little animation, by becoming a station on the line of the London and Southampton railway; in excavating for which was found a petrified basket containing three eggs, which also had been changed into grey flint. Eggs and basket are now soldered into one complete mass, and can not be separated. This is curious as showing that animal and vegetable substances can be converted into flint, from having been buried in chalk for a period of years much within the range of human history. Population in 1831, 9,212.



Petrified Basket of Eggs, found at Winchester.

CHAPTER XXII.



LONDON, the capital of England and metropolis of the British empire, is situated on the banks of the Thames, in the counties of Middlesex and Surrey, and within a day's journey of the southern shore of Britain, in latitude $51^{\circ} 30' 47''$ north. The name London is traced to a Celtic or British origin, though some doubts are entertained respecting its exact signification. The more common opinion is, that it originates in the words *Llin*, a pool or lake, and *din*, a town or harbor for ships. As the Thames at one time spread into a lake on the Surrey side, this signification is sufficiently descriptive of the local position of the metropolis. On the spot now occupied by the city, or more ancient part of the metropolis, which is on the left or northern bank of the Thames, a town had been built and possessed by the Romans eighteen centuries ago, and from that period it has constantly been the seat of an increasing and busy population. Its chief increase and improvement, however, have been since the great fire in 1666, which destroyed a large number of the old streets and public edifices.

The original city was fortified by a wall, which has long since been removed, to allow of an expansion into the adjacent fields; and as the number of houses and streets without the old line of wall has at length greatly exceeded those within, *the city*, as it is still named, is like a mere kernel in the mass. The extending city has in time formed a connexion with various clusters of population in the neighborhood, including Westminster on the west, and by means of bridges, Southwark and Lambeth on the south. The whole metropolis, reckoning by continuous lines of houses, extends to a length of nearly eight miles, by a breadth of from six to seven, and it is computed that the whole includes at least thirty-five square miles.

The following is the list of districts included within what is usually described as London, with their population in 1831: London within the walls, fifty-seven thousand six hundred and ninety-five; London without the walls, sixty-seven thousand eight hundred and seventy-eight; city of Westminster, two hundred and two thousand and eighty; out-parishes within the bills of mortality, seven hundred and sixty-one thousand three hundred and forty-eight; parishes not within the bills of mortality, two hundred and ninety-three thousand and five hundred and sixty-seven; Southwark, ninety-one thousand and five hundred and one; total, one million four hundred and seventy-four thousand and sixty-nine. London within the walls contains ninety-eight parishes, most of which are very small in size, but at one time were very populous. The practice of living out of town, and of using the dwellings of the city for warehouses, has greatly lessened the population in latter times. Without the walls, there are eleven parishes,

independently of the parishes in Westminster and Southwark. The largest and most populous of the suburban parishes is Marylebone. Adjoining the suburban though really town parishes, there are various country parishes, as Greenwich, Deptford, Camberwell, Clapham, Westham and Stratford, Hammersmith, Hampstead, &c., containing an aggregate population of one hundred and twenty-nine thousand four hundred and eighty; and adding this number to the above one million four hundred and seventy-four thousand and sixty-nine, there was within a compass of about eight miles round London, in 1831, a population of one million five hundred and eighty-four thousand and forty-two, which is probably now increased to about two millions. Within the last fifty years, London has doubled in extent, and at present is rapidly increasing on all sides, particularly on the north, west, and south. In no town in Great Britain are there to be seen so few empty houses. The total assessed rental of the metropolis in 1830 was five millions one hundred and forty-three thousand three hundred and forty pounds, but the real rental was supposed not to be less than seven millions of pounds.

The increase of London to its present enormous size, has been promoted by certain highly favorable circumstances. First, it has for ages been the capital of England, and seat of the legislature and court; and, since the union with Scotland and Ireland, it has become a centre also for these parts of the United Kingdom. Being therefore a point of attraction for the nobility, landed gentry, and other families of opulence from all quarters, a vast increase of population to minister to the tastes and wants of these classes has been the result. While deriving immense advantages from this centralizing principle, London has been equally, if not far more indebted to its excellent situation on the banks of a great navigable river, and in a fine part of the country. As already mentioned, London proper, or the greater part of the town, stands on the left bank of the Thames, on ground rising very gently toward the north; and so even and regular in outline, that among the streets, with few exceptions, the ground is almost flat. On the south bank of the river, the ground is quite level, rather too much so; and on all sides the country appears very little diversified with hills, or anything to interrupt the extension of the buildings. The Thames, that great source of wealth to the metropolis, is an object which generally excites a lively interest among strangers. It is a turbid muddy stream, rising in the interior of the country at the distance of one hundred and thirty-eight miles above London, and entering the sea on the east coast about sixty miles below it. It comes flowing between low, fertile, and village-clad banks, out of a richly ornamented country on the west, and arriving at the outmost houses of the metropolis, a short way above Westminster Abbey, it pursues a winding course between banks thickly clad with dwelling-houses, warehouses, manufactories, and wharfs, for a space of eight or nine miles, its breadth being here from a third to a quarter of a mile. The tides affect it for fifteen or sixteen miles above the city; but the salt water comes no further than Gravesend, or thirty miles below it. However, such is the volume and depth of water, that vessels of seven or eight hundred tons reach the city on its eastern quarter at Wapping. Most unfortunately, an extended view of this stream is hid from the spectator, there being no quays or promenades along its banks. With the exception of the summit of St. Paul's, the only good points for viewing the river are the bridges, which cross it at convenient distances, and by their length convey an accurate idea of the breadth of the channel. During fine weather, the river is covered with numerous barges or boats of fanciful and light fabric, suitable for quick rowing; and by means of these pleasant conveyances, as well as small steamboats, the Thames forms one of the chief thoroughfares.

London is fortunate in a particularly salubrious situation, whether as respects its relation to the river or its subsoil. A large portion of the entire city is built on gravel, or on a species of clay resting on sand; and by means of capacious underground sewers in all directions, emptying themselves into the Thames, the whole town (with some discreditable exceptions in the humbler and more remote class of streets) is well drained and cleared from superficial impurities. On account of the want of stone here, as in many other places in England, brick is the only material employed in building. London is therefore a *brick-built town*. To a stranger, it appears to consist of an interminable series of streets of moderate width, composed of dingy red brick houses, which are commonly four stories in height, and seldom less than three. The greater proportion of the dwellings are small. They are mere slips of buildings, containing, in most instances, only two small rooms on the floor, one behind the

other, often with a wide door of communication between, and a wooden stair, with balustrades, from bottom to top of the house. It is only in the more fashionable districts of the town that the houses have sunk areas with railings; in all the business parts, they stand close upon the pavements, so that trade may be conducted with the utmost facility and convenience. Every street possesses a smooth flagged pavement at the sides for foot passengers; while the central parts of the thoroughfares are causewayed with square hard stones, or paved in some other way equally suited to endure the prodigious tear and wear created by the horses and vehicles passing along them.

In the central and many other principal streets of London, the ground stories of the houses are generally used as shops or warehouses. When the object is retail traffic, the whole range of front is usually formed into door and window, so as to show goods to the best advantage to the passengers. The exhibition of goods in the London shop windows is one of the greatest wonders of the place. Everything which the appetite can desire, or the fancy imagine, would appear there to be congregated. In every other city there is an evident meagerness in the quantity and assortments; but here there is the most remarkable abundance, and that not in isolated spots, but along the sides of thoroughfares miles in length. In whatever way the eye is turned, this extraordinary amount of mercantile wealth is strikingly observable; even in what appear obscure alleys or courts, the abundance of goods is found to be on a greater scale than in any provincial town.

The flowing of the Thames from west to east through the metropolis, has given a general direction to the lines of streets; the principal thoroughfares are in some measure parallel to the river, with the inferior, or at least shorter streets branching from them. Intersecting the town lengthwise, or from east to west, are two great leading thoroughfares at a short distance from each other, but gradually diverging at their western extremity. One of these routes begins in the eastern environs, near Blackwall, proceeds along Whitechapel, Leadenhall street, Cornhill, Cheapside, Newgate street, Skinner street, Holborn, and Oxford street. The other may be considered as starting at London bridge, and passing up King William street into Cheapside, at the end of which it makes a bend round St. Paul's churchyard, thence proceeds down Ludgate hill, along Fleet street and the Strand to Charing Cross, where it sends a branch off to the left to Whitehall, and another to the right, called Cockspur street, which leads forward into Pall-Mall, and sends a shoot up Regent street into Piccadilly, which proceeds westward to Hyde Park Corner. These are the main lines in the metropolis, and are among the first traversed by strangers. It will be observed that the main channels unite in Cheapside, which therefore becomes an excessively crowded thoroughfare, particularly in the early part of the day. The main cross branches in the metropolis are—Farringdon street, leading from the opening to Blackfriars bridge, at the foot of Ludgate hill, to Holborn; the Haymarket, leading from Cockspur street; and Regent street, already mentioned. There are several large streets leading northward from the Holborn and Oxford street line. The principal one, in the east, is St. Martin le Grand and Aldersgate street, which communicates with the great north road. It is a matter of general complaint, that there are so few great channels of communication through London both lengthwise and crosswise; for the inferior streets, independently of their complex bearings, are much too narrow for regular traffic. According to the accounts last taken, the entire metropolis contained thirteen thousand nine hundred and thirty-six separate streets, squares, courts, alleys, &c., each with a distinct name. Oxford street, the longest in London, is two thousand three hundred and four yards in length, and numbers two hundred and twenty-five houses on each side.

Without particular reference to municipal distinctions, London may be divided into four principal portions—the city, which is the centre, and where the greatest part of the business is conducted; the east end, in which is the port for shipping; the west end, or Westminster, in which are the palaces of the queen and royal family, the houses of parliament, Westminster abbey, and the residences of the nobility and gentry; the Surrey division, lying on the south side of the Thames, and containing many manufacturing establishments and dwellings of private families. Besides these, the northern suburbs, which include the once detached villages of Stoke Newington, Islington, Hoxton, St. Pancras, Pentonville, Somer's Town, and Paddington, and consist chiefly of private dwellings for the mercantile and higher classes, may be considered a peculiar and distinct division. It is, however, nowhere possible to say exactly where any one division begins or ends. Throughout the vast

compass of the city and suburbs, there is a blending of one division with those contiguous to it. In the business parts there are lines or clusters of neat dwellings, and in the parts devoted to retirement there are seen indications of business. The outskirts on all sides comprise long rows or groups of detached villas, with ornamental flower-plots; and houses of this attractive kind proceed in some directions so far out of town, that there seems no getting beyond them into the country. From the Surrey division there extend southward and westward a great number of these streets of neat private houses, as, for instance, toward Walworth, Kennington, Clapham, Brixton, &c.; and in these directions lie some of the most pleasant spots in the environs of the metropolis. The suburban streets are only macadamised, and possess gravel side paths. We shall now proceed to describe this splendid city in detail.

CHAPTER XXIII.

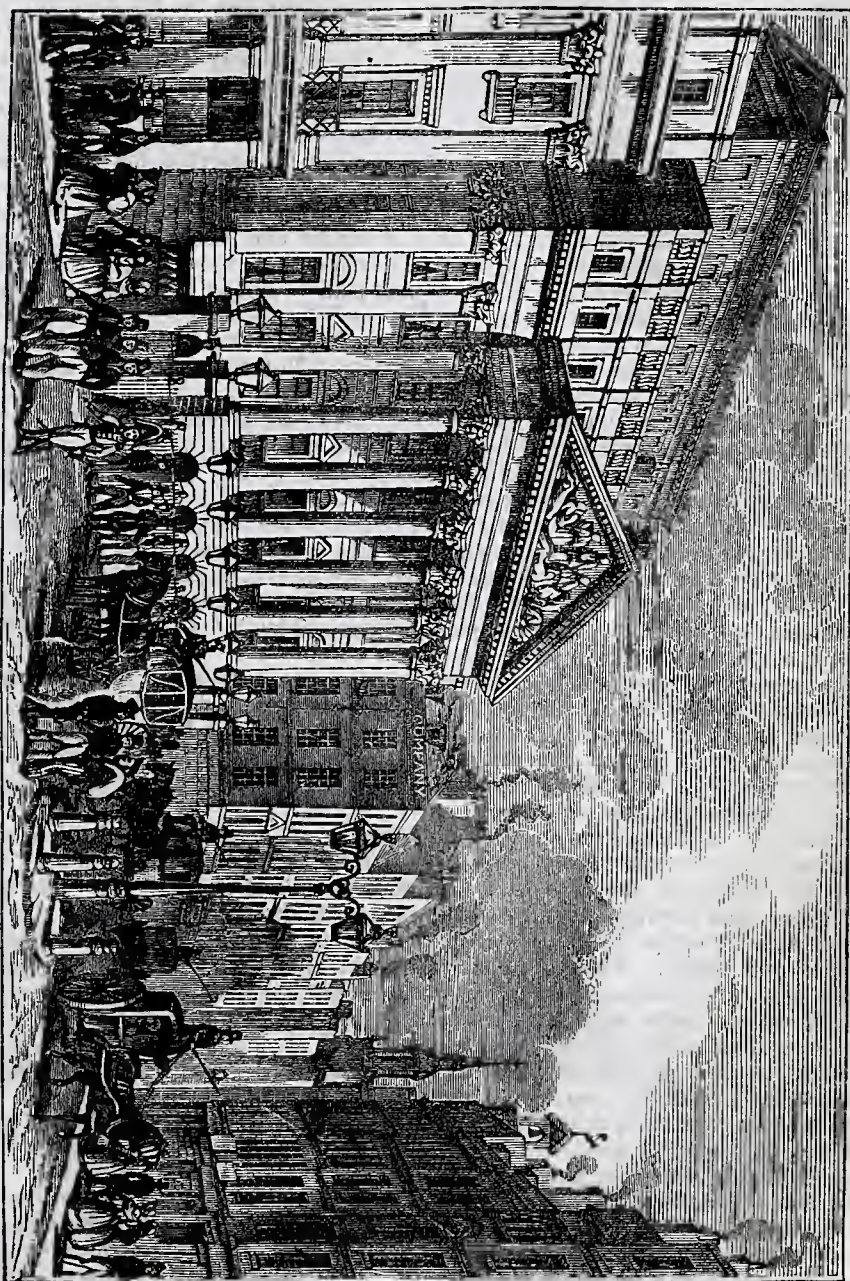
THE MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT OF THE METROPOLIS.

IF we draw a line from north to south, running down through Holborn and the Strand, we shall have London tolerably accurately divided, with reference to its grand characteristics of being the central seat of government, legislation, and law, and an emporium for the commerce of the world. On the west side of this line lie the palaces, the houses of parliament, the chief courts of justice, the great government offices, the parks, and the splendid squares and streets which are the external types of the presence of royalty and the court, and all the rank, and wealth, and fashion, which congregate around them. On the east side lie the "city"—a small kernel in a large shell—the docks, and the port, and their enormous accumulations. The boundaries of the "city" have no external indications (except Temple bar, at the end of Fleet street), by which the stranger may be able to mark it out from the mass which hems it round. It may be defined as lying along the Thames from Temple bar to the Tower; from the Tower the boundary-line runs up in an irregular manner (describing a figure somewhat approaching to a semicircle) through the heart of a dense population. The city, therefore, is like a bent bow, of which the Thames is the cord. But though Southwark and Lambeth—each of them having a population sufficient to make a large city—are not within the limits of the "city," which do not cross the river, they are peculiarly its appendages and adjuncts. Southwark is under the same municipal regulations as the city. Within the city limits lie St. Paul's, the general postoffice, the bank of England, the royal exchange, the East India house, the Mansion-house, and Guildhall.

Let us station ourselves at the Mansion-house, the palace of the civic monarch, the lord-mayor. Here is a busy and important thoroughfare. Opposite is the massive pile of the bank: beside it the agitating scene of the exchange. There is an incessant throng; and if a bar were laid across the street for five minutes, the throng would swell into a crowd, and from a crowd into a mob. But no riots, no disturbances arise. Peace reigns—if such a term be not inappropriate to a scene where, from morning till night, there is a perpetual confusion of sounds.

What salt of life preserves such a body? Does the king of the city, keeping his state within this mansion, hold the reins of government with a firm and vigorous hand, and is his very name a terror to the evil-doers?

In London generally, applying the name to the whole extent of the metropolis, there are about two millions of people. Numbers of this population have grown up, and are growing up, in habits and inclinations which are, unfortunately, more or less opposed to security and order. With such a reflection, it is really marvellous to see how life and property are so completely protected. As to life, it is perfectly secure; for the murders and manslaughters which are produced by sudden outbreaks of drunken or malignant passion, or the aberrations of intellect, are rare in occurrence, and could hardly be restrained by the most perfectly-devised police system. And as to robbery, it scarcely enters into any man's thoughts, when he walks about, that he



The Mansion-House.

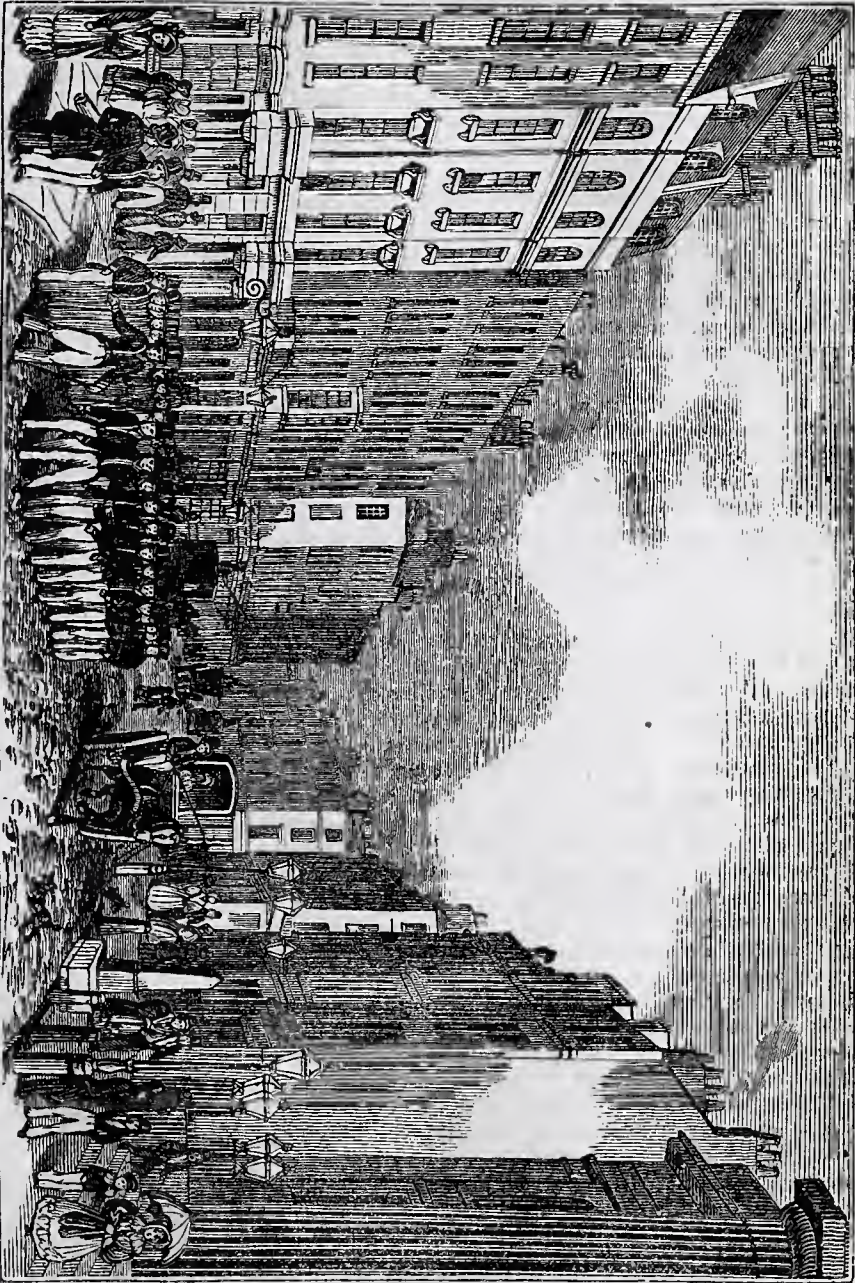
will be deprived of his property by violence. Craft, cunning, imposition, subterfuge, are the prime characteristics of London robbery. The master may be robbed by his dishonest servant; the eager tradesman, anxious to "do business," may be imposed upon by the well-dressed or plausible swindler; the simpleton, staring about the streets, or enjoying himself in what to him may be a new scene, a London public-house, may have his vanity excited by artful conversation, be tempted to show how much money he can produce, and in having it carefully put up for him, get brown paper or coppers substituted for bank-notes or gold; and the imprudent or the thoughtless, by throwing themselves in the way of temptation, may lose property intrusted to them, and with it, perhaps, their own characters. But the prudent individual may walk about even the worst parts of London by night without danger, unless it be that of having his pocket picked. Yet there are nests of misery and crime in London, the inspection of which by day would give to such an assertion the appearance of being very improbable. The mazes of the Seven Dials, the far-famed district of St. Giles, crowded with a half-English half-Irish population, Tothill street, leading up from Westminster abbey, and all the narrow streets and lanes which lie along the Thames below London bridge, present a startling contrast to the stateliness and grandeur of many of the streets of the "west end." Yet in these places the pedestrian is as safe as in the crowded thoroughfares of Cheapside, Fleet street, the Strand, Holborn, or Piccadilly, at least by day; the only difference being, that he may see much that may move his pity or offend his taste. Not even the long narrow lane which runs up from the bottom of Holborn hill (known as Field lane and Saffron hill), which has for many a day borne a most notorious character, and the very sight of which, to a timid stranger, as he gazes at its narrow entrance, has a suspicious and deterring effect, dares to uphold its bad pre-eminence of being able to beard the law. All this security is obtained by the police.

The "city" of London, in virtue of its privileges manages its own police. The lord-mayor and aldermen, as such, are the police magistrates within the city limits. The lord-mayor presides generally at the Mansion-house, and an alderman at Guild-hall. The other parts of London have police justice administered to them by stipendiary magistrates, at different police offices, which were established by government in 1792.

The present day police of the city of London was established in 1832. In 1833 it amounted to one hundred individuals; but including superior officers, such as marshals and marshals' men, &c., it amounted to one hundred and twenty. There were two marshals and six marshals' men. The upper marshal receives a yearly salary of £540, the under £450. Each marshal's man has about £130 a year, exclusive of fees for warrants and summonses.

In addition to the day police, the total number of watchmen and other persons employed in the several wards of the city of London, was, in 1833, ordinary watchmen, five hundred; superintending watchmen, sixty-five; patrolling watchmen, ninety-one; and beadles, fifty-four; total, seven hundred and ten. The number of men on duty at twelve o'clock at night, as stated in 1833, was within the city, three hundred and eighty. The day police is appointed and paid by the corporation, out of the corporation funds; the total expense, in 1832, was £9,006. The sums ordered to be raised and levied within the different wards, by authority of the mayor, aldermen, and commons of the city, in common council assembled, for the support of the night watch, was, in 1827, £34,700; in 1833, £42,077. Though still under the management of the different wards, the night watch has been greatly improved within these few years by the substitution of able young men for the aged and often decrepit creatures to whom the guardianship of our streets was formerly intrusted, and who were frequently appointed out of mere charity.

To this police may be added the ward constables. These are elected at the different wardmotes, chiefly on St. Thomas's day. But these constables, who were principally relied on, before the recent alteration of our police, for the preservation of the public peace during the day, do not act, unless directed by a magistrate to execute a particular duty. On public occasions, the lord-mayor has power to collect them all together. The inhabitant householders are liable, in their turn, to serve the office of constable. Those to whom the duty is onerous, endeavor to excuse themselves or procure a substitute to serve for them. The number of principal, substitute, and extra constables, in 1831, was four hundred and eight; in 1832, four hundred and nine; and in 1833, it was three hundred and ninety-eight. The falling off was



Bow Street, and the assembling of the Police.

attributed to the establishment of the day police in the city, their services dispensing in some measure with those of the ward constables.

The following is a list of the different police establishments which still exist in the metropolis, in addition to the new police : Bow street, including the horse patrol, which watch the roads leading from the metropolis to a distance of from ten to sixteen miles ; Marlborough street ; Hatton garden ; Worship street ; Lambeth street ; High street, Marylebone ; Queen square ; Union hall ; Thames police ; city of London police. The nine police offices, however, maintain each only a subordinate number of constables, immediately attendant on the magistrates—the new police being generally ministrative to them, though, of course, under the control and authority of the commissioners, whose office is in Scotland yard. We can, therefore, say, in a correct sense, that there are but three police bodies in London—the new, the city, and the Thames police.

The origin of the Thames police may be ascribed directly to Mr. Colquhoun, though, of course, the necessity that existed for protection to the shipping in the port of London was the primary cause. In Mr. Colquhoun's treatise on the "Commerce and Police of the River Thames," he describes the exposed state of the immense property annually arriving in the river, and the systematic depredation carried on by river pirates, night plunderers, aided by receivers, journeymen coopers, and other tradesmen, as well as the crews and mates of vessels, and revenue officers. The character of the watermen was at this time very bad. Then there were lower grades among this great combination of thieves : mud-larks, so denominated because they ostensibly gained a livelihood by grubbing in the mud of the Thames at low water for matters lost or thrown overboard, but who were in reality dangerous assistants to the thieves ; rat-catchers, who, under pretence of clearing a ship of vermin, availed themselves of opportunities for plunder, &c., &c.

The limits of the jurisdiction of the Thames police extends, upon the Thames, so far as the river runs between the counties of Middlesex and Surrey, Essex and Kent ; but the common supervision of the river is confined to the busy parts of the river, from Greenwich to a little above Westminster : occasionally the boats go lower and higher.

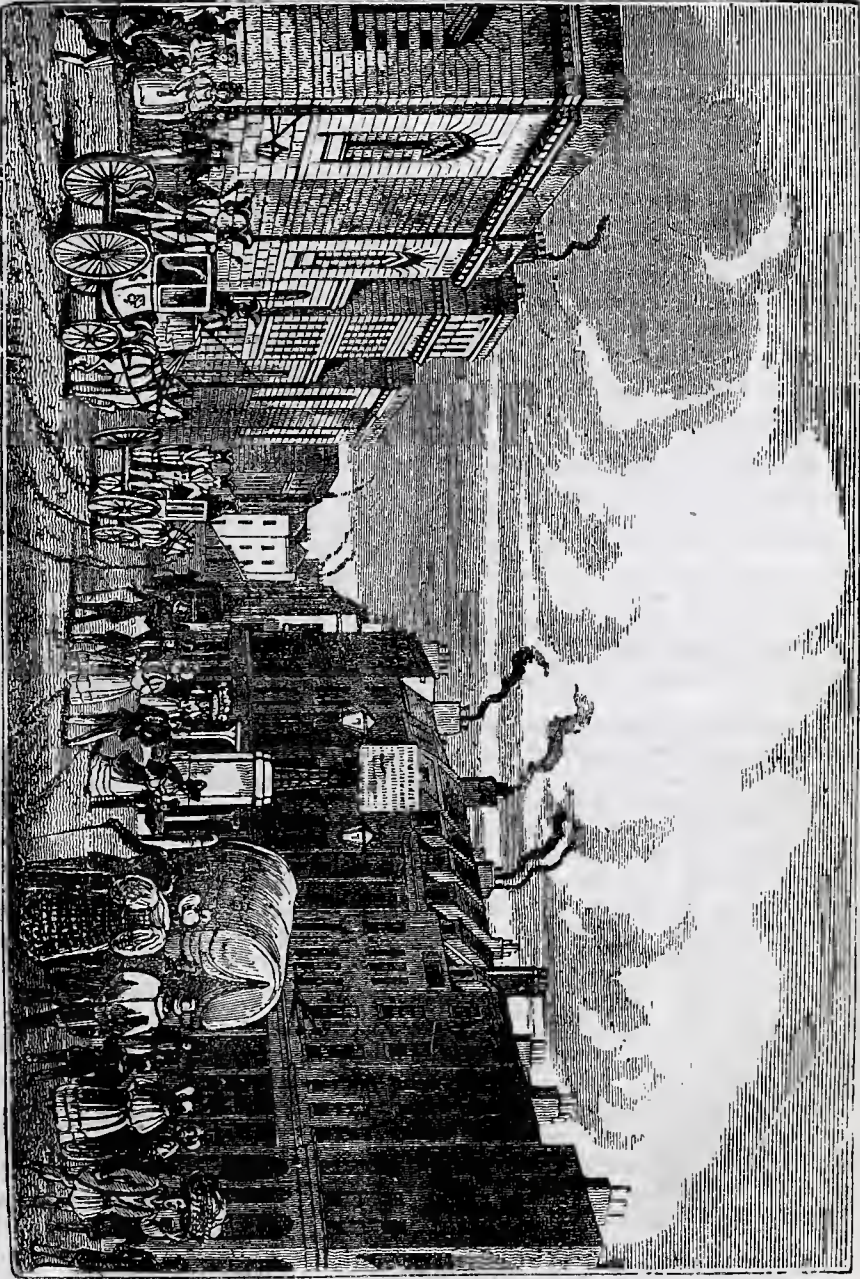
There are twenty-one surveyors on the establishment of the Thames police, each of whom has charge of a boat and three men while on duty. The surveyors, having cause to suspect that any felony has been or is about to be committed on board any ship, are authorized to enter at all times, by night or day, for the purposes of detection or prevention. They frequently board vessels newly arrived, and after cargoes have been discharged ; they go into the docks and board vessels there ; they interfere in smuggling cases that come to their knowledge, being themselves officers of the customs ; and they have also to see that certain regulations are observed by vessels in port, such as not having more than a limited quantity of gunpowder on board.

Let us suppose a person apprehended by the police for a crime alleged to have been committed in London, and carried before the magistrates of one of the metropolitan police offices. These police magistrates can punish summarily, by inflicting a fine or a short imprisonment ; they may remand the prisoner for further inquiry, or they may admit to bail. In our supposed case, the evidence appears to the magistrates sufficient to warrant the sending of the case before a superior tribunal ; the prisoner can not procure bail, or the magistrates refuse to take it ; he is committed to Newgate, and the witnesses are bound over to give their testimony on the trial.

The street called the Old Bailey strikes off from Ludgate hill, and terminates at the intersection of Newgate street and Skinner street. The continuation of the Old Bailey is called Giltspur street, which leads into Smithfield. The city wall ran along here from Ludgate to Newgate. The Newgate appears to have been made a place of custody at least as early as the beginning of the thirteenth century ; and the name has been applied to every successive structure that has occupied the site.

About the middle of the Old Bailey street commences the extensive range of buildings which form the courts of justice and the prison. The prison, a massive and frowning structure, occupies the end of the Old Bailey, and turns up Newgate street. The present building was erected in the place of a previous one which had been rebuilt after the great fire of London, and had been found totally inadequate to its purposes.

Newgate has a wide-spread notoriety, not merely as the head-jail of London, and from the remarkable names and deeds associated with it, but from the labors of phi-



The Old Bailey—Sheriffs going to the Court.

lanthropists. It has lain in the heart of this great city like some foul and undrained marsh, into which all the waters of corruption were poured. It has ever been a fertile nursery of crime. From within its walls physical as well as moral contagion has issued, and spread disease in most noxious and aggravated forms. The jail-distemper has more than once struck down the functionaries who appeared at the Old Bailey sessions, as well as the prisoners themselves.

Among all who have labored to alleviate the miseries of Newgate, the honored name of Mrs. Fry must not be overlooked. To give a proper idea of the state of the prison when she began her labors would require statements unfit for our pages ; but the following extract from Mrs. Fry's evidence before a committee of the house of commons, in 1818, will give the reader a faint notion of the moral courage and patience which this excellent woman must have possessed to enable her to pursue her self-chosen avocation :—

"About what time was it when you first visited Newgate, and established a committee of ladies to visit the female prisoners?—It is rather more than a year. It is rather more than a year since I first established a school for the children of the convicts ; I did not undertake the care of the convicts till about two months afterward ; their children first attracted my attention.

"Have the goodness to relate what you did with regard to the children. In visiting the prison, which I had been occasionally in the habit of doing for several years, I very much lamented to see children so much exposed among those very wicked women, and I understood that the first language they lisped was generally oaths or very bad expressions ; it therefore struck me, how important it would be to separate them from the convicts, and to have them put in a small apartment by themselves, under the care of a schoolmistress, provided it met with the approbation of the women themselves, for I always approved acting in concert with them in whatever I did. I represented my views to the mothers, and they with tears in their eyes said, 'Oh, how thankful we would be for it;' for they knew so much the miseries of vice, that they hoped their children would never be trained up in it. It was in our first visits to the school, where we some of us attended almost every day, that we were witnesses to the dreadful proceedings that went forward on the female side of the prison—the begging, swearing, gaming, fighting, singing, dancing. The scenes are too bad to be described, so that we did not think it suitable to admit young persons with us."

"As a proof of the want of classification," Mrs. Fry says, in another portion of her evidence, "women who came in weeping over their deviations—some small deviation perhaps—by the time of their trial or dismissal would sometimes become so barefaced and wicked as to laugh at the very same things, and to be fitted for almost any crime. I understand, that before we went into the prison it was considered a reproach to be a modest woman."

We have already said that the prison is a very different place from what it was ; let us, therefore, venture in. We shall find the officers, from the governor downward, civil, attentive, and obliging. Ascending a few steps, and expressing a wish to see the boys' ward, we are conducted through a dark labyrinthine passage, and, on mounting a stair, the merry shouts that we hear seem to proceed from the playground of a school. Here are two rooms—one the schoolroom by day and sleeping-room by night, the other the day-room. In the latter, about fifteen or sixteen boys are tumbling about at play. A well-known voice calls out, "Stand around !" but the quick eyes of the youngsters tell them that the strangers are not official visitors ; and they therefore come forward, bobbing their heads, or rather pulling them down by the front locks, and boisterously elbowing each other as they fall into line. An almost indistinct murmur, however, lets them know the extent of their discretion, and they stand quiet. "That boy," pointing to a child of about ten or eleven years of age, "is under sentence of death !" In a moment, the little creature feels himself the object of greatest importance in the group, and his look evinces it.

"Does the course taken with young offenders operate as a punishment sufficient in its nature to deter them from crime?—Certainly not. A boy affects to cry at the bar, and his mother or some relation will cry with him, and the judge gives him a little lecture, and sends him home ; or sometimes they inflict a whipping, but that is made a matter of laughter among these young rascals after becoming inured to a jail." "I think, if the boy is under twelve years of age, when the mind is hardly

formed, it is too much to send him for trial at the Old Bailey, and thus, whether found guilty or not, consign him to infamy for life."

Let us pass now from the boys' ward to that of the men's. Here they are lounging about the day-room; but at the command of "Stand around!" they fall into line for inspection with a quieter promptness than did the boys—one or two with a sullen scowl, some with an easy indifference, others with a half-kind of smile, as if not so much accustomed to the discipline. They are mostly young men, from sixteen years of age to twenty-five. The greater part of these individuals have probably come through the first part of their apprenticeship in crime, and are now rising into life with seared hearts, depraved and almost irreclaimable habits, and their intellectual powers exercised in nothing but the dexterity and meanness of theft.

The plan of Newgate is quadrangular. The untried prisoners are kept separate from the tried, and the young from the old. It was built originally without sleeping cells for separate confinement, except the condemned cells: the number of night-rooms is thirty-three, in each of which there are at night from fifteen to thirty persons; the number of day-rooms, or wards, is ten; one hundred and twenty-nine sleeping cells might be got by dividing these large rooms, but four hundred and sixty-two additional cells would still be wanting, for which the prison affords no space.

CHAPTER XXIV.

LAW COURTS.

THE law courts are somewhat scattered about London. The superior courts of common law and equity are indeed to be found together at Westminster hall; and their vicinity to the houses of the legislature, as well as the hall itself, gives them a fitting air of propriety, and even of dignity. But, on the other hand, if the attraction of a license or a legacy induces the stranger to inquire for the ecclesiastical courts, he must literally search for Doctors' commons. Both Westminster hall and Doctors' commons are in the neighborhood of our two great ecclesiastical edifices—the abbey and St. Paul's. But even when the stranger is in St. Paul's churchyard, he must ask for Doctors' commons! He must seek for it in those narrow streets that run down the slope of the hill on which stands the mighty pile—too near us, hemmed in, and clustered round, to make us feel sufficiently the influence of masses of stone heaped together by the hand of genius. Then the court of bankruptcy must be sought for in Basinghall street, in the "city," and the court for the relief of insolvents in Portugal street, Lincoln's Inn Fields. The courts of requests—courts which can give summary relief in civil actions for small amounts—are, properly enough, distributed in different parts of London. These courts are interesting places—the vast number of cases perpetually arising in such a population as that of London fills them with business. The Marshalsea and palace courts are in Scotland yard, near Charing cross. These courts have jurisdiction over all personal actions arising within the verge of the palace, that is, within twelve miles of Whitehall, excepting the "city" of London.

It is not alone from considerations connected with the past that Westminster hall is an object of interest. Here is the head and fountain of those judicial institutions under which England has shot up to greatness—institutions planned at a distant time, by a rude people, under widely-different circumstances from those in which we live—institutions which administer laws full of apparent anomalies, but which have furnished the form and pattern of judicial institutions now incorporated with the habits and feelings of millions of people in some of the fairest parts of the globe. English forms of law and judicial administration prevail throughout a great nation, whose dominion stretches from the Atlantic to the Pacific oceans; they are to be found in her colonies in every latitude; they are taking root in the empire rising in the southern seas.

The first three courts as we enter the hall are, the king's bench, the common pleas, and the exchequer. These courts issued out of one, and, in the lapse of time, they have come to be, for nearly all practical intents and purposes, one court again. The king's bench, indeed, retains a portion of its ancient superiority in its jurisdiction over all inferior tribunals—it can bring a criminal from any inferior court in England into its own, and there deal with him as law and justice may demand. In the exchequer also—the judges of which are termed barons, and the chief the lord chief baron—all revenue cases are still tried; but the great mass of all civil suits may be brought indiscriminately into any of the three courts, and the fifteen judges (until 1830 there were only twelve) are the head expounders and administrators of the statute and common law, dispensing it in their courts at Westminster hall, and over the entire kingdom in their circuits.

There are four terms in each year during which the courts are open at Westminster hall. These are Hilary, Easter, Trinity, and Michaelmas terms. The three courts—king's bench, common pleas, and exchequer—determine questions of law during term time. The sittings after term are generally employed in deciding causes before special and common juries. The “city” of London has the privilege of having its *nisi prius*, or jury, cases tried at Guildhall.

The “high court of chancery” is divided into three courts—the court of the lord chancellor, the court of the master of the rolls, and the court of the vice-chancellor. The special interference of the king, as the fountain of justice, was frequently sought against the decisions of the courts of law, where they worked injustice; and also in matters which were not cognizable in the ordinary courts, or in which, from the maintenance or protection afforded to his adversary, the petitioner was unable to obtain redress. The jurisdiction with which the chancellor is invested had its origin in this portion of discretionary power, which was retained by the king on the establishment of courts of justice. The exercise of those powers in modern times is scarcely, if at all, less circumscribed and hemmed in by rule and precedent than the strict jurisdiction of the courts of law. The decisions of former lord-chancellors, and the customs and practices which sprung up in the courts, have created a body of equity law in very much the same way that the body of the common law was created. And thus the law of England is divided into two great branches of common law and equity law, each having their forms, rules, and precedents, according to which the judges regulate their decisions. The court of exchequer has what is termed its equity side as well as its common law side.

Next in rank to the lord chancellor in the court of chancery is the master of the rolls; he is chief of the masters in chancery, and derives his name from being keeper or guardian of the chancery rolls or records. During term-time the chancery judges sit at Westminster hall; on other occasions, the lord chancellor in Lincoln's Inn hall, the vice-chancellor in a court near it, the master of the rolls in his court in Chancery lane, and one of the barons of the court of exchequer, as an equity judge, in Gray's Inn hall.

The court of bankruptcy was established in the beginning of the reign of William IV. Its name implies the nature of its business. It is subdivided into three courts—the court of review, with a chief judge and two puisne judges. The commissioners of bankruptcy are six in number.

The court for the relief of insolvent debtors is presided over by three judges, termed commissioners, one of whom sits twice a week in London the whole year through, and they also make circuits over England.

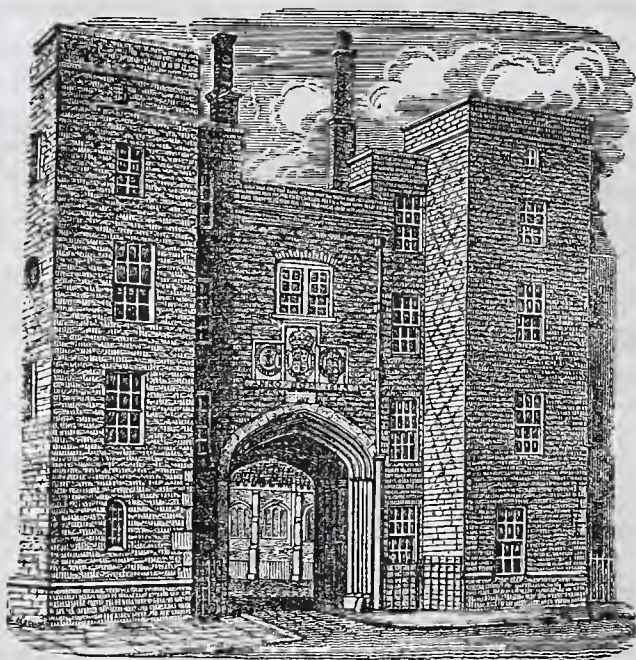
We have hardly space to enter into any detail respecting the ecclesiastical courts. Their jurisdiction takes cognizance of wills, and administration of personal property—of causes for separation and nullity of marriage, of suits respecting church-rates and churches, of cases respecting church discipline, connected either with clergy or laity, &c., &c. The advocates practising or presiding in these courts are an incorporated body, forming a college, the number being limited. They are all doctors of law. A proctor is an ecclesiastical attorney or solicitor.

In Doctors' commons is also the admiralty court. Its criminal business is given to the central criminal court, but it has an extensive jurisdiction in civil admiralty causes.

The courts of law can not be dismissed without slightly noticing the metropolitan prisons for debtors connected with them. The king's bench prison lies across the river in Southwark. It occupies an extensive space of ground; and the tall and



Westminster Hall.

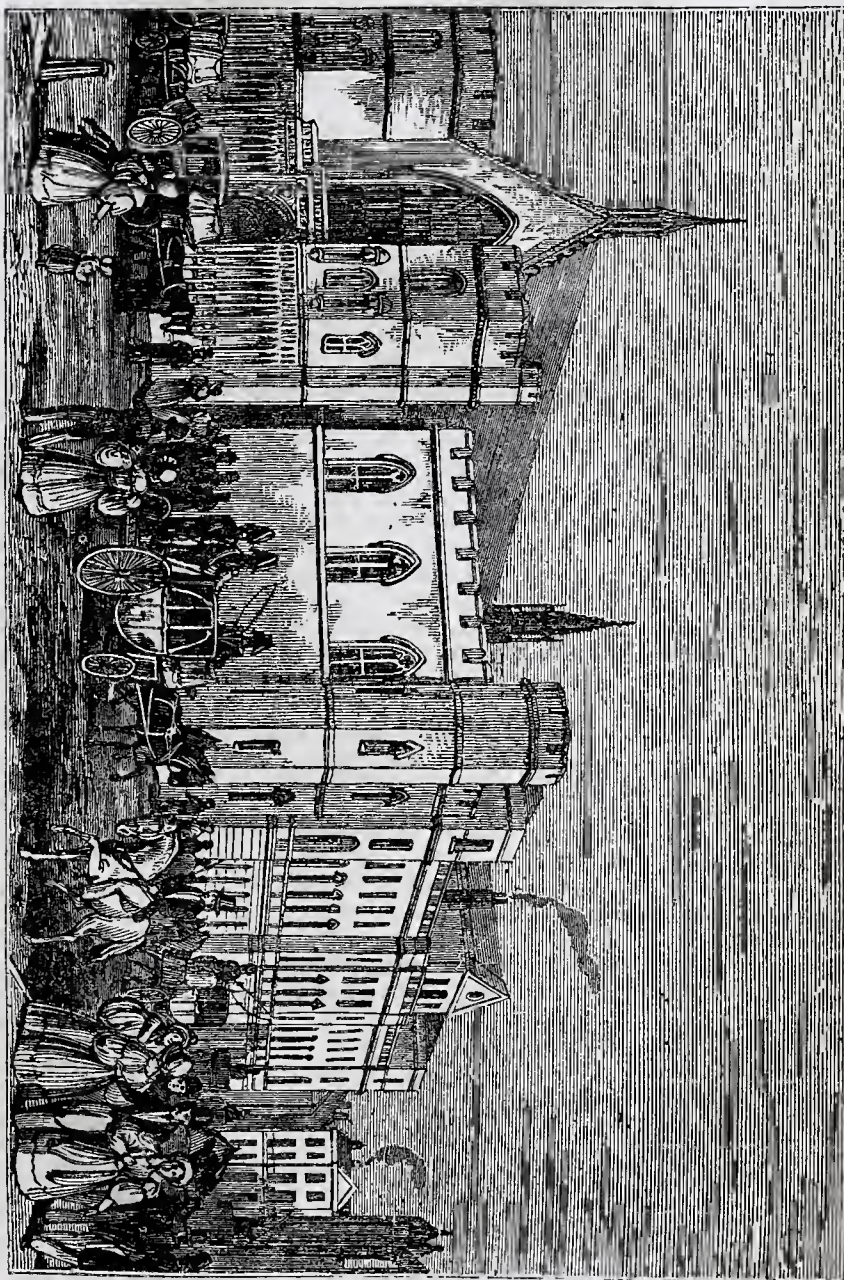


Lincoln's Inn Gateway, in Chancery Lane.

dusky walls that surround it give it a very gloomy external appearance. But inside it has the appearance of being not a prison, but one of those prison-looking places, a fortified town. It contains shops, stalls, and public-houses, for the supply of its somewhat numerous population. This prison, and that of the Fleet, may be termed the head prisons of England for the incarceration of debtors—for debtors can procure themselves to be removed (at some expense) from any other prison to either of these two. Each of these also has a certain space outside the prison, under the name of Rules, in which debtors who can afford to pay certain fees, and give security, are allowed to reside—and it may be easily imagined that those who can do so are not always to be found precisely within the precincts of the Rules. It has been long a maxim of the common law that a debtor must answer with his body, if he can not or will not with his purse—but we are doubtless drawing nearer to a better time, and to a more humane—nay, to a more *self-interested* application and understanding of the law of debtor and creditor. The king's bench prison is the place of confinement where the court of king's bench has been in the habit of committing its prisoners, such as those guilty of “contempt” toward it, and many of those who have been sentenced by it to imprisonment for libel.

The Marshalsea, or palace court, has also a prison for debtors in Southwark, which, until within these few years past, was a shocking place of confinement. It has been re-edified and improved.

The Fleet prison lies in Farringdon street, near the bottom of Ludgate hill. This prison was erected in the place of the old Fleet prison, which was destroyed in the riots of 1780, and which was so notorious for its “Fleet marriages.” The Fleet is the prison to which the courts of chancery, common pleas, and exchequer, commit for “contempt.”



Old Palace Yard, Westminster Hall, and the Courts of Law.

CHAPTER XXV

LEGISLATION AND GOVERNMENT.

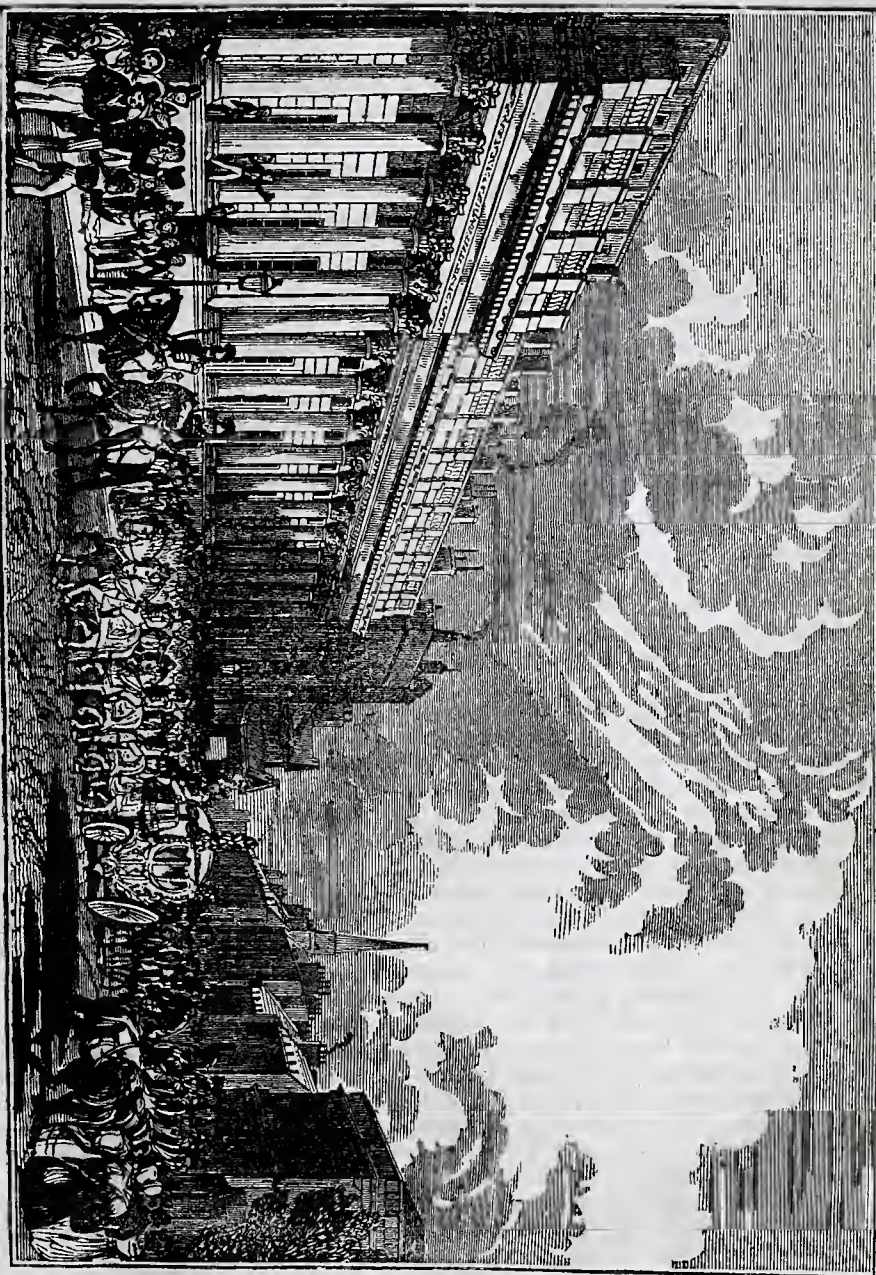
THE legislation of the British kingdom is intrusted to two bodies, the house of lords and the house of commons. They meet in different places, and their proceedings are generally attractive.

The ceremony of the queen going in person to parliament to open the session is an interesting one. The queen also generally closes the session; and sometimes, though very rarely, she goes down during its continuance to give assent to bills, or for some special purpose; but the opening of the session, being a time of greatest expectation, is generally regarded with most interest. The approach of the queen is announced by successive salutes or ordnance in St. James' park and at the tower. If the weather is fine, there is usually a large assemblage to witness the procession. The interior of the house of lords presents a brilliant and animated scene, the peers being in their robes, and a large number of ladies being present, either peeresses in their own right, or the wives, daughters, or other relations of peers.

If the visiter has entered the strangers' gallery of the house of commons, without knowing the subjects on which the house will proceed to business, and if he sits down, expecting, as a matter of course, that there will be a grand oratorical display, a keen encounter of wit, and all the excitement of a brilliant assembly, he will very frequently meet with a complete disappointment. Even on what are termed "field-nights," patience is considerably tried. If you can not make interest to get introduced into the reserved seats outside the bar, on the floor of the house, and below the strangers' gallery, you must then, if a strong debate is expected, take your station at an early hour on the gallery stairs, and wait with patience; you may be admitted when the speaker is at prayers. He, the chaplain, and the clerks, are kneeling at the table; there are but five or six members present; and though the gallery is nearly crowded, and you have secured a front seat, an apprehension steals over you that the required number, forty, will not arrive in time to make a house. But the members are dropping in; the speaker begins to count slowly and deliberately; he arrives at thirty-nine, and then takes the chair. The debate, however will not begin immediately. You must wait two or three hours for that. In the meantime a variety of motions and business of a formal nature is gone through, the half of which only reaches your ear. There appears to be an apprehension that a division will take place on some private bill—that the words "Strangers, withdraw!" will be pronounced, and that you will be dislodged from your position.

A message from the lords! The form of proposing and assenting to the admission of the messenger is through so quickly and so quietly as almost to escape attention. Straightway a gentleman in full dress emerges from beneath the gallery, where he has made a profound bow; advancing to the middle of the floor, he bows again; and on reaching the table he bows a third time. On delivering his message, he retreats, walking backward with a dexterity that amuses the stranger, and bows three times as he did on advancing. This is the Usher of the Black Rod, come to summon the speaker and the house to hear the royal assent given by commission to certain bills. The sergeant-at-arms, who is dressed with a bag-wig, and sword by his side, takes up the mace and marches before the speaker; a few members follow, but the rest remain. Now the strangers pent up in the little gallery may avail themselves of their privilege—the speaker and the mace are gone, and there is therefore "no house;" they may stand up, stretch themselves, and talk, without fear of a rebuke or a frown from the attendants. The speaker returns, takes the chair, the mace is laid on the table, and he reports to the house the bills that have become acts by receiving the final sanction of the legislature.

On another occasion we may see the sergeant-at-arms take up the mace, and go to meet two individuals in gowns and wigs, with whom he advances, all three bowing as did the Usher of the Black Rod. These are masters in chancery, who are the usual messengers of the house of lords, bringing down certain bills to which the assent of the commons is requested.



Parliament Street—Board of Trade—Treasury and Whitehall—The Queen going to the House.

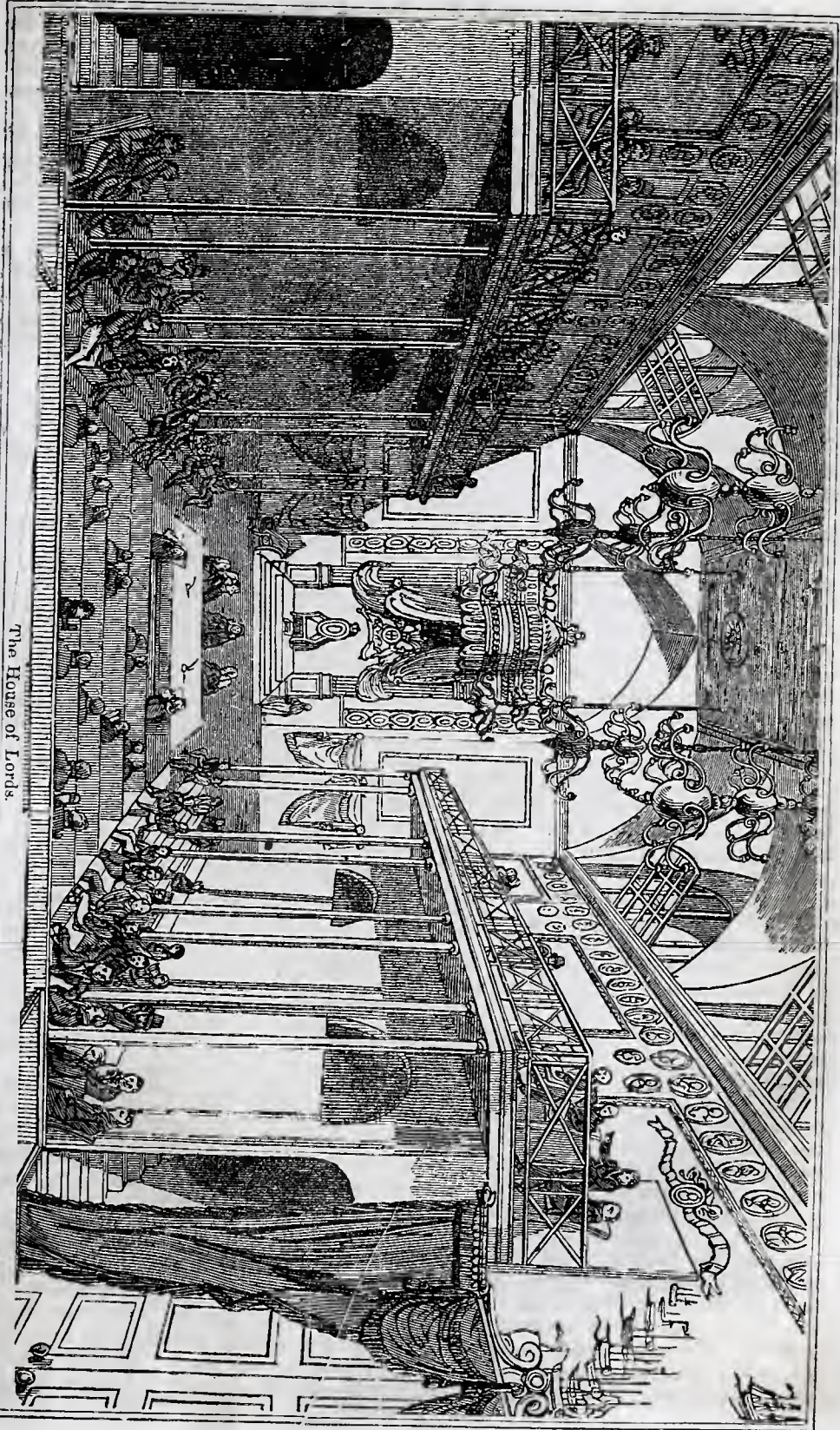
The house is now crowded, and the member who brings on the important subject of the evening rises to make his statement. His majesty's ministers and their supporters always occupy the range of benches on the right hand of the speaker. The opposition occupy the left. When the opening speech is finished, which has probably been long, full of facts, and, it may be, important, but consisting chiefly of dry details and figures, a large portion of members rise to quit the house; the voice of the succeeding speaker is nearly drowned in the noise of footsteps and slamming of doors, and it is sometimes a considerable period before he can be distinctly heard. All members bow to the chair on entering, and on going out are supposed not to turn their backs on it. The debate goes on—now swelling into noble sounds—now falling off in tedious episodes; and by the time the occupant of the front seat of the strangers' gallery has sat from four till twelve, or later, he will confess that, however exciting the subject—however grand the associations connected with this political arena, presenting as it does in combination some of the cleverest and the most influential men of the empire—however wonderful it is to see those note-takers carefully and accurately reporting the outline of the debate, facts, figures, and all, and with the machinery with which they are in connexion, giving the world an opportunity of being present—still, to sit out an important debate in the house of commons is a very fatiguing thing.

None can carry a message from the house of commons to the house of lords but members; the house of lords has specific messengers of its own to convey its communications to the commons. The messengers of the house of commons are merely the servants of the serjeant-at-arms, who is the head of the household establishment, and has the responsibility and care of the house, under the speaker.

When a bill or message is to be carried from the commons to the lords, a member is appointed to take it; and as the practice is that at least eight members must go up, the speaker addresses the house, desiring it to follow its messenger. If the bill is an important one, a large number of members usually accompany the messenger. The Usher of the Black Rod informs the house of peers of the presence of the messengers; when they are admitted, the Black Rod, as he is abbreviatingly termed, places himself at their head, and the lord chancellor, or whoever is chairman at the time, comes down to the bar to receive the message. Three obeisances are made on entering and retiring.

The house of lords has a different appearance from the house of commons. Both are neatly fitted up, but the lords has a richer and more stately appearance. The visiter may have entered during the day, when it is sitting as the highest court of justice in the empire, and judgment on some case may be delivering. This may be done at considerable length, either by the lord chancellor, who is sitting in his official costume, or by one of the law lords occupying the benches. If it be one of the latter, the stranger's notions may be somewhat startled at seeing him in plain clothes—for the novice is apt to associate robes and stars with his idea of the appearance of a peer in his place in parliament. But peers only wear their robes on great occasions. The bishops, however, always wear their clerical robes. When judgment is delivered, the strangers, mingled with the counsel in the space below the bar, fall back toward the wall, forming a semicircle; the next case is called, the attendant messenger exclaims "counsel," and the barristers conducting the case advance, bowing three times; one of them then ascends the step at the bar (on which the speaker of the house of commons stands when he and the house are summoned) and opens the proceeding in an easy colloquial tone. The short-hand writer of the house takes his notes at the bar. The gallery for strangers and reporters when the house sits legislatively occupies a similar position to the strangers' gallery in the house of commons, being over the entrance, above the bar.

At a little distance from the houses of parliament, lie some of the principal government offices. A wide spacious street, but not perfectly straight, termed Whitehall, stretches from the end of Parliament street (which is a continuation of Whitehall), to Charing Cross. A narrow inlet, bearing the far-famed name of Downing street—it should be termed Downing *place*, for it is not a thoroughfare—runs up from the bottom of Whitehall. Here are the official residences of the first lord of the treasury, the chancellor of the exchequer, the officers of the foreign and colonial secretaries of state, &c. From the entrance of Downing street a handsome new range of building extends along Whitehall, presenting a fine front to the street, which is stated to have been copied from the temple of Jupiter Stator at Rome. This is appropriated to the



The House of Lords.

board of trade and the privy council, &c. Beyond this, and joining it, is the old building of the Treasury, in which the home office is also placed; higher up is the Horse Guards; nearly opposite it is the building termed Whitehall, which has given name to the street; above the Horse Guards, nearer to Charing Cross, is the Admiralty; and opposite, in Scotland yard, are a variety of subordinate government offices.

St. James's park, and the Horse Guards' parade in front of it, lie at the back of Downing street, the Treasury, the Horse Guards, and the Admiralty. The engraving represents these buildings from the park. There is an arched passage through the Horse Guards from Whitehall into the Parade. Here between ten and eleven in the morning, the animated scene exhibited in the engraving is presented.

The extensive and important business of the executive government requires a minute subdivision of labor, the employment of many offices and numerous functionaries. To attempt to gather an idea of the extent of the business transacted from an inspection of the exterior of Downing street and Whitehall would be but an idle effort; yet to describe particularly each office would only tempt the reader to exclaim

"Grove answer grove; each alley has its brother,
And half the platform but reflects the other."

However different the nature of the various employments may be, there must be a similarity in all—the Horse Guards alone, from its military air and character, breaking the uniformity.

The treasury is the head of the executive. The prime minister is always the first lord of the treasury—for the first title is merely honorary, given to him from the rank which he takes as head of the government: the second title is the virtual one. The second lord of the treasury is always the chancellor of the exchequer; but when it happens that the prime minister is a commoner, he sometimes takes both the post of first lord and chancellor of the exchequer—for the latter must be a member of the commons, and the government appointments are usually distributed so as to secure as equal a proportion of ministers as possible in both houses of parliament. There are four junior lords of the treasury, two secretaries, an assistant secretary, two solicitors, and a number of clerks. The treasury has the control of the mint, the customs, the excise, the stamps and taxes, the postoffice, the management of the national debt, &c.

The duties of the chancellor of the exchequer are of a momentous kind. They give him cognizance of the entire revenue of the empire. His "budget," as it is termed, is an annual exposition to the house of commons and the nation of the amount of taxes gathered from every source, the expenditure of that money, and whether a necessity or an opportunity has arisen for the imposition of a new tax, or the reduction of an old one.

The names of the three secretaries of state indicate their several duties. There would appear, at first sight, a great difference in the weight of their respective functions. The home secretary, we might say, having such a small department as that of Great Britain to attend to, and that, too, chiefly as regards the administration of justice and police, can not be so heavily pressed as he who has to watch foreign nations, control ambassadors, look to nearly two hundred consular stations in different parts of the world, and otherwise guard the foreign interests; or the colonial secretary, presiding over the wide-spread empire in every quarter of the globe.

The board of trade has its president, secretaries, and various departmental clerks; the office of Woods and Forests its commissioners; the exchequer its comptroller accountants, &c.; and the board of control its president and commissioners. The office of the board of control lies over from Whitehall, in a lane called Cannon Row, not far from Westminster bridge. Its business is to superintend and control the governing functions of the East India company.

The Horse Guards is the seat of the government of the vast military establishment of Great Britain. The king is the head and generalissimo of the army; the commander-in-chief is the king's deputy, and acting ruler of the forces. The connexion between the Horse Guards and the civil government is maintained by a member of the latter, termed the secretary-at-war; the paymaster-general is also usually a civilian. The commander-in-chief is assisted by a military secretary, an adjutant-general, a quartermaster-general, and a judge-advocate-general. There is also a chaplain-general. The ordnance office is partly at the Tower of London and in



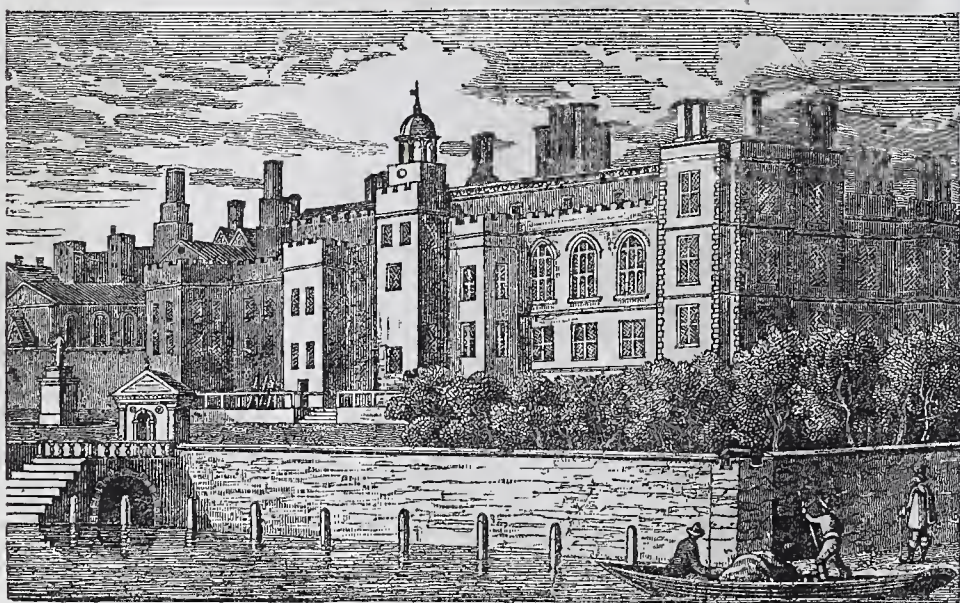
Back of the Horse-Guards and the Admiralty.

Pall Mall ; and it is presided over by a master-general and a surveyor-general, with their principal secretaries and clerks.

We come now to the admiralty. The front of this building recedes from the street, but is connected with it by wings, forming a court-yard. The head of the admiralty is the lord high admiral ; but this office has been rarely held in person (the late king, when duke of Clarence, was lord high admiral for some time) ; but its duties are discharged by lords commissioners, the first lord being the head of the department.

The preceding gives a very brief and rapid view of the head government offices in Downing street and Whitehall. But there are other offices of the executive, subordinate indeed to those we have described, but each heads of departments, and of very great importance, in different parts of London.

A number of what may be termed the working offices of government are in Somerset house. This noble building is entered from the strand ; on passing through the gateway we arrive in a spacious quadrangle, and over the different doors on each side of the square may be remarked brief but significant intimations, such as "Stamps and Taxes," "Navy Payoffice," "Legacy Duty Office," "Audit Office," &c., &c.

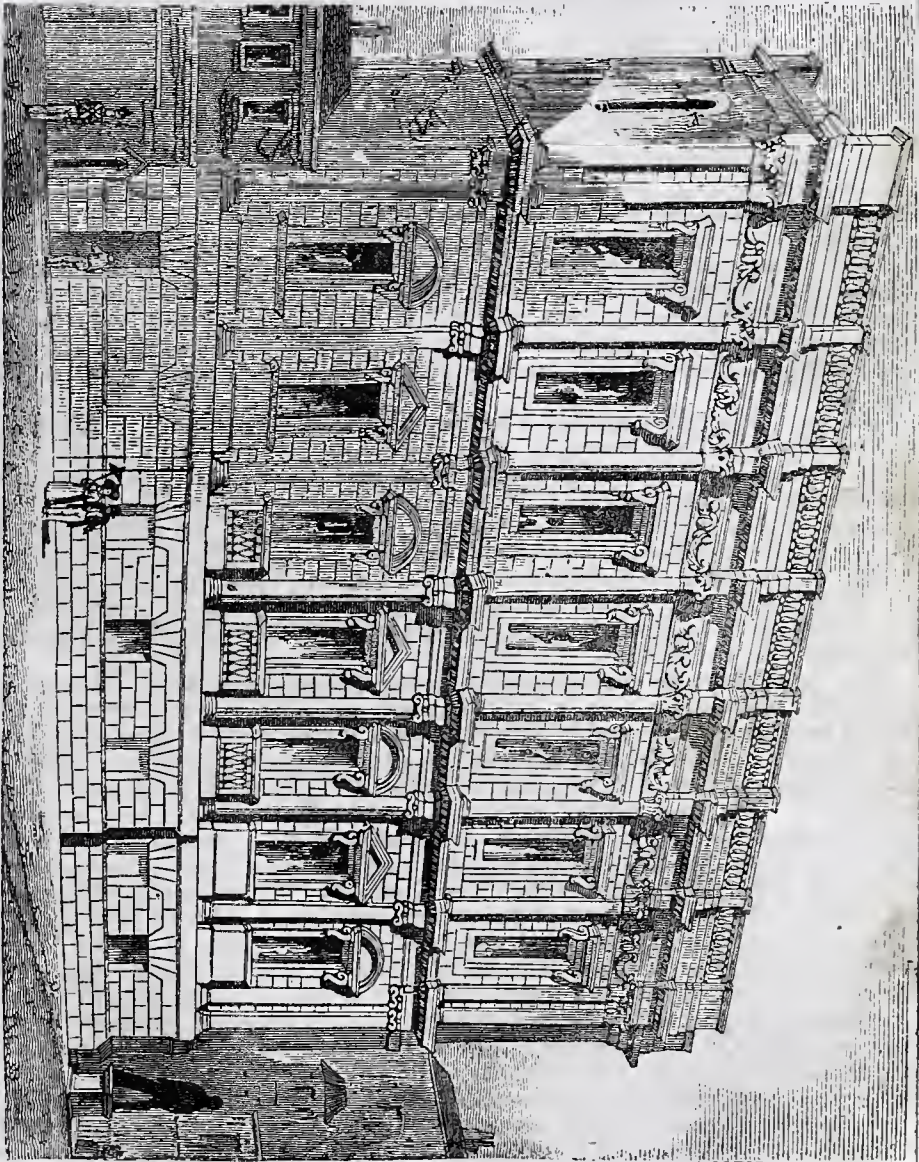


Somerset House.

Here, therefore, is transacted a large portion of government money business, and the receipt and management of such parts of the revenue arising from trade as do not fall under the heads of customs or excise. For instance, under "Stamps" are included the taxes levied on deeds, legacies, insurance policies, bills of exchange, bankers' notes, newspapers and advertisements, stage-coaches, post-horses, receipts, &c.

Among other offices in Somerset house, may be mentioned that of the poor-law commissioners. The money that was gathered in the country for poor-rates was, in 1832-'34, between eight and nine millions annually ; in 1835 it fell down to little more than seven millions, and in 1836 it was little more than six millions.

The excise office is in Broad street, and the customhouse in Lower Thames street, below London bridge.



Whitehall.

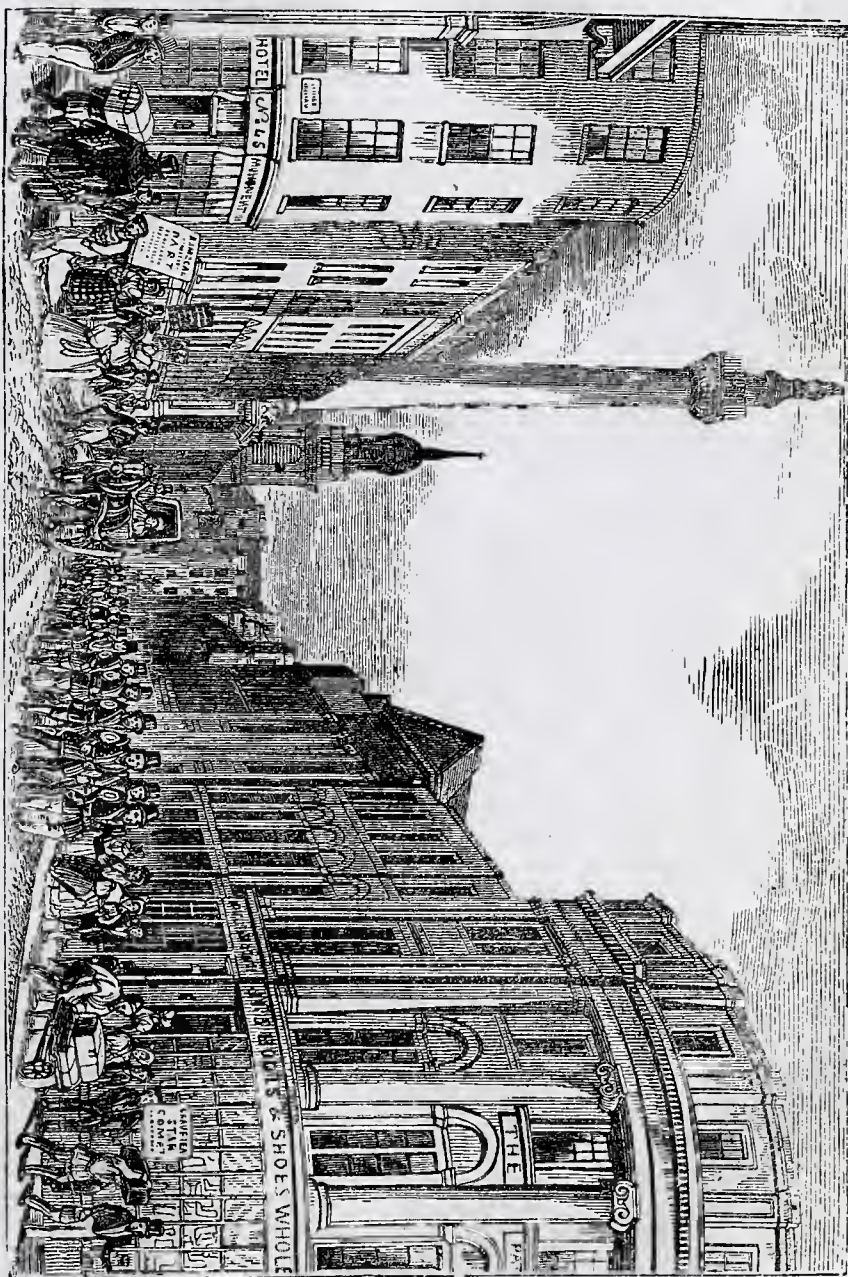
CHAPTER XXVI.

FIRE-INSURANCE, SUPPLY OF WATER, GAS, PAVING.

THE accompanying engraving supplies an illustration of the fact, that communities learn slowly what is best for the general health, convenience, and comfort. That tall column, "pointing to the skies," commemorates a terrible event, which weeded out the narrow streets and lanes where the plague, in its frequent visits, found the filth, discomfort, and misery, on which it fed; yet, in spite of the warning, too many narrow streets sprung up on the site of those burned down; and the monument on Fish-street hill, not only bore testimony to the great calamity which ultimately proved so beneficial, but seemed to rear its head over the narrow streets around it, as if to say, "Here, at least, another 'great plague,' or another 'great fire,' may find materials on which to work." Happily, neither pestilence nor fire, in aggravated forms, has visited London since the latter half of the seventeenth century; but it was not till the erection of the new London bridge and its approaches, that Fish-street hill assumed the handsome appearance it now presents. It looked very different a few years ago.

This leads us to take a view of a very important department of the social characteristics of London—the means by which it is secured and insured from the ravages of fire, the supply of water, of gas, and the paving and sewerage. On all these combined depend a great many of the causes which make a city really great—not the greatness arising merely from magnificent public buildings or establishments, but that which communicates to the mass of the inhabitants the largest amount of social security, of enjoyment, of convenience, and of comfort. In all these respects London has much to improve; yet its inhabitants enjoy more of them in a single day, than the inhabitants of imperial Rome did in a year, with all its wonderful monuments and public places of resort.

There has hitherto been no special fire-preventive police, nor as yet, under the direction of the government or municipal authorities. The law merely requires parishes to keep fire-engines and ladders in certain places, and to provide stop-blocks and fire-cocks on the mains of the water-works. Gratuities are also directed to be paid to engine-keepers, &c., who arrive earliest at any fire for the purpose of extinguishing it. The fire-insurance companies, however, have always kept up at their own expense a fire police. Formerly, each company had a distinct body of firemen, who were chiefly selected from the watermen; these had a peculiar garb, and wore the badges of the companies to which they belonged. They had annual processions and dinners. When an alarm of fire was communicated to one of them, he ran on to rouse his nearest companion, and, having done so, proceeded to the fire; the second went to alarm a third, and so on, till the whole body were roused. Ingenious as this was, there was a want of co-operation and a loss of time frequently experienced. The firemen pursued their usual avocations on the river when not required to perform their occasional duties, and when an alarm of fire was raised during the night most of them might be sound asleep after the labors of the day. To obviate the evils arising from the employment of occasional servants, the greater number of the London fire-insurance companies joined together, about four years ago, to form a permanent body of firemen, ready at all hours to give immediate attendance on fires. This is termed the "London Fire-Engine Establishment," and is supported at the expense of the following fire-insurance companies: The Alliance, Atlas, British, Globe, Guardian, Hand-in-Hand, Imperial, London, Norwich Union, Phoenix, Protector, Royal Exchange, Scottish Union, Sun, Union, and Westminster; and these have been joined recently by the "Licensed Victuallers' Society." This fire establishment, instead of being under distinct officers appointed by each company, are embodied under the direction of a superintendent, with foremen and engineers under him, appointed to certain stations. At these stations there is constant attendance day and night. The



Fish Street Hill Monument, and St. Magnus' Church, with Procession of Firemen.

firemen are clothed in a uniform of dark gray, with their numbers in red on their left breasts. They wear strong leather helmets on their heads, which have been found of great service in protecting them from accidents occasioned by the fall of walls or other matters. The stations are in Ratcliffe, St. Mary Axe, Finsbury, Cheapside, Blackfriars, Holborn, Covent Garden, St. Giles's, Oxford street, Golden square, Portman square, Waterloo bridge road, Southwark bridge road, Tooley street, with extra engines in Shadwell, Westminster, Lambeth, and Rotherhithe. The number of men on the fire-engine establishment is between ninety and a hundred.

In addition to this special fire-preventive body, it is the duty of the metropolitan police to give assistance in case of fire. In 1830 there were three hundred and eighty fires attended by this body, and fifty-one lives saved; in 1831, the number of fires was three hundred and twenty-four, and the individuals saved sixty-eight; in 1832, there were two hundred and fifty-two fires, and forty-seven saved. This does not include the fires which occurred in the "city" of London.

There are no published details from which we can learn the extent of the pavements of London, or the annual expense of maintaining them. The management of them is in the hands of a great number of boards, each having particular districts, and acting under various acts of parliament. Mr. Williams, in his work on "Subways," taking for data the published accounts of the "city," and supposing it to be one fourth of the metropolis, makes a conjectural calculation that the amount annually collected and expended on the streets of London is two hundred and sixteen thousand pounds.

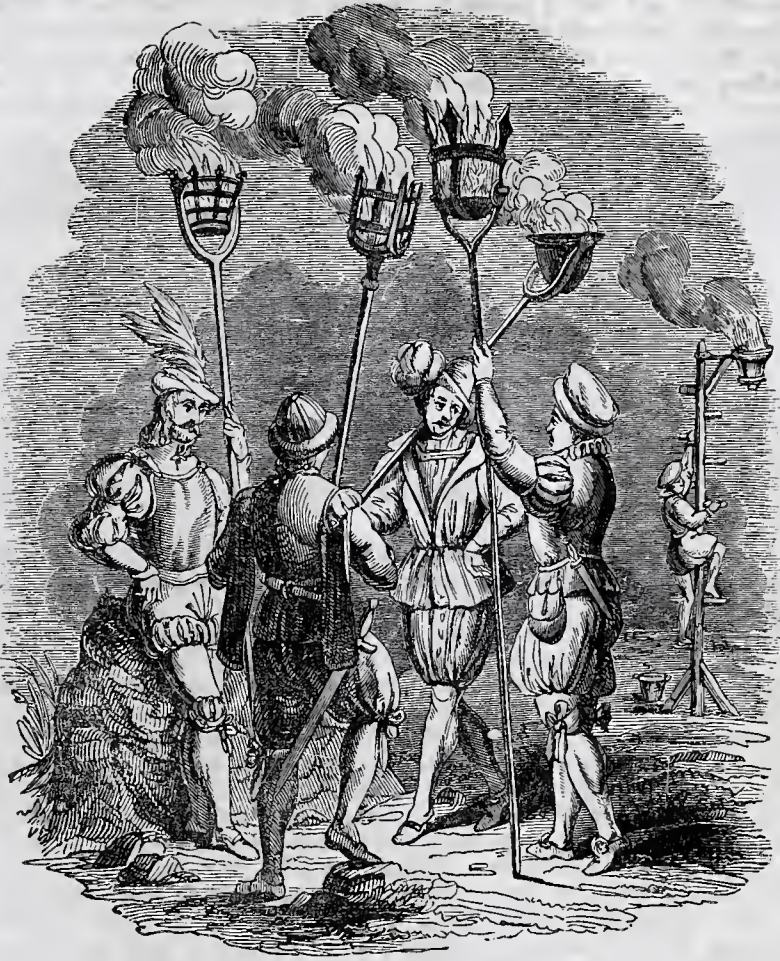
The reader is aware that most of the great continental cities are very indifferently supplied with foot-pavements. Paris, for instance, though it has been very much improved since the peace, is still "very perilous and noxious" to an American pedestrian of the present day.

We have given before some particulars respecting the state of the streets of London before they were generally lighted. Beckman, speaking of the time when the city was lighted with oil lamps, before the introduction of gas, says: "Oxford street alone is said to contain more lamps than all Paris. The roads, even seven or eight miles round London, are lighted by such lamps; and as these roads from the city to different parts are very numerous, the lamps, seen from a little distance, particularly in the county of Surrey, where a great many roads cross each other, have a beautiful and noble effect."

Mr. Williams, in 1828, says: "There are now in London four great gas-light companies, having altogether forty-seven gasometers at work, capable of containing, in the whole, nine hundred and seventeen thousand nine hundred and forty cubic feet of gas, supplied by one thousand three hundred and fifteen retorts; and these consuming thirty-three thousand chaldrons of coals in a year, and producing forty-one thousand chaldrons of coke; the whole quantity of gas generated annually being upward of three hundred and ninety-seven millions of cubic feet, by which sixty-one thousand two hundred and three private, and seven thousand two hundred and fifty-eight public or street lamps, are lighted in the metropolis. Besides these, there are several other minor companies and public establishments that light with gas." There are at present sixteen metropolitan gas-companies, supplying the entire extent of London. (For an illustration of a former mode of lighting the streets of London, see the engraving entitled "The Watch, with 'cressets' and 'beacons.'")

The first attempt to supply London with water, by means superior to those of the conduits, pumps, and water-bearers of former times, was made by a Dutchman named Peter Morrys, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. He contracted with the corporation to raise water by an engine, to be erected in an arch of London bridge, and to send it through pipes into the city. Four arches of the bridge were successively assigned to him and his descendants for the purpose; and the London bridge water-works were in existence and operation till within these few years, having been only removed when the bridge was taken down.

Next after him came the well-known Hugh Middleton, citizen and goldsmith, and afterward a baronet. His scheme was more magnificent, and having been executed with persevering earnestness as well as skill, it has effected the supply of a large portion of London for upward of two hundred years, and will doubtless continue to do so. This was the cutting of the canal, termed the New river. It derives its principal supplies from a spring at Chadwell, between Hertford and Ware, about twenty-one miles north of London, and also from an arm of the river Lea, the source of



The Watch, with "cressets," and "beacons."—Grouped from Hollar.

which is near the Chadwell spring, in the proportion of about two thirds of the former and one third of the latter. These united waters are conducted by an artificial channel, nearly four miles in length, to four reservoirs, called the New River Head, at Clerkenwell. The New River company having taken up the supply of that part of the city which used to be supplied from the London Bridge water-works, have erected an engine on the banks of the Thames, by which they are enabled, in case of any failure in the quantity supplied by the New river, to draw from the Thames to make up the deficiency. The Hampstead water-works were also incorporated with the New River, and a considerable quantity of water is brought from the ponds on Hampstead heath to a reservoir near Tottenham court road.

About twenty years ago, considerable excitement prevailed in London respecting the quality of the water supplied by the different water companies to the inhabitants of the metropolis. The larger portion of them deriving their supplies from the Thames, it was contended that the river, receiving the drainage of about one hundred and forty sewers, as well as all the refuse of the various soap, lead, gas, and drug manufactories, was quite an unfit place from which to supply so essential an element of life. The subject was investigated by parliament, and also by Dr. Roget, Mr. Brande, and the late Mr. Telford, acting as a commission under the great seal. The committee of the house of commons gave it as their opinion, "that the then present state of the supply of water to the metropolis was susceptible of and required improvement; that many of the complaints relative to the quality of the water were

well founded; that the supply ought to be derived from other sources than those then resorted to; and that it should be guarded by such restrictions as would at all times insure the cleanliness and purity of an article of such prime necessity."

In 1831, Mr. Telford was directed by government to "make a survey, and report upon the best mode of supplying the metropolis with pure water." He did so in the beginning of 1834; but it does not appear that anything material has since been done in the matter.

There are eight water companies supplying London with water. These furnish to one hundred and ninety-one thousand and sixty-six houses a daily supply of twenty millions eight hundred and twenty-nine thousand five hundred and fifty-five imperial gallons.

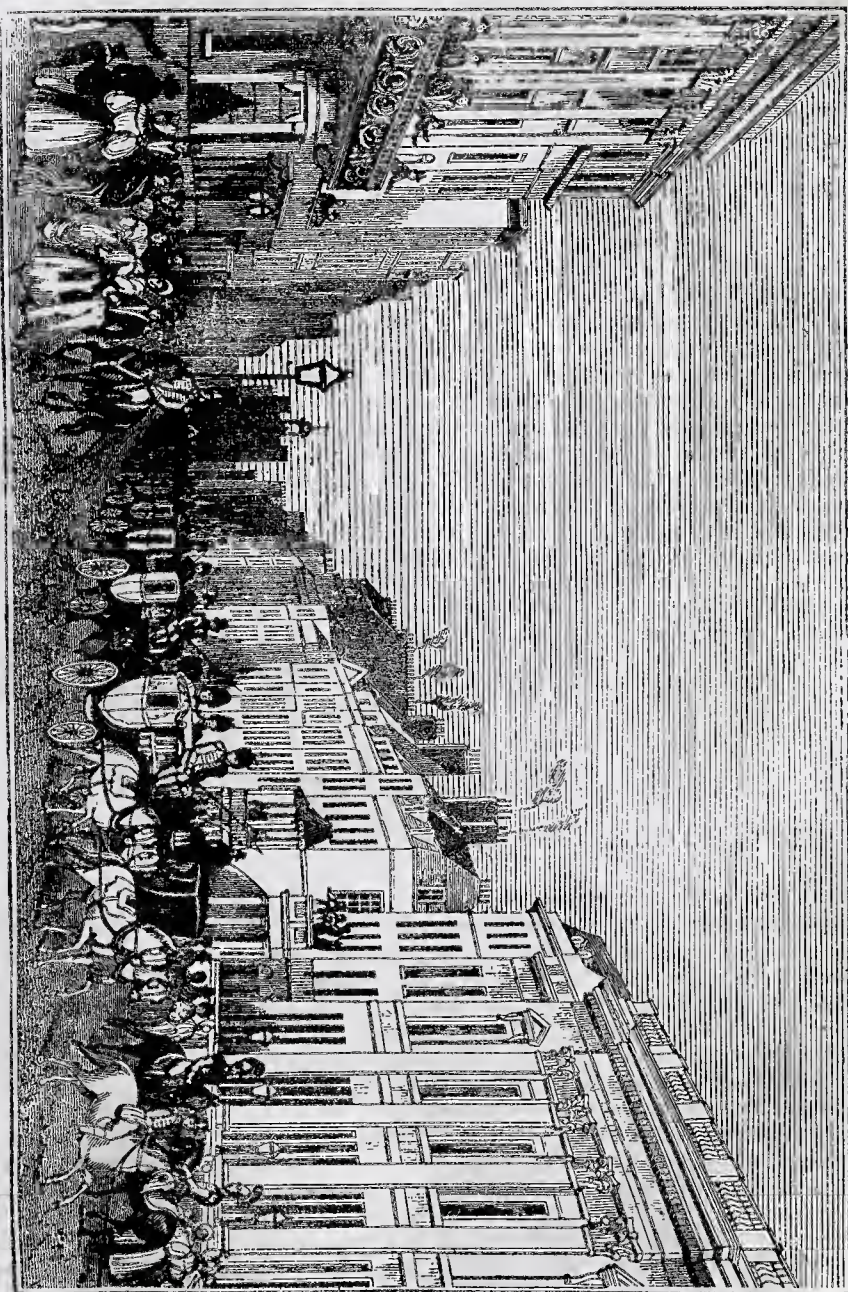
CHAPTER XXVII.

THE COURT.

THE London "season," or winter, was reckoned, during the last century, from about the month of November till that of May. It was regulated, as it is now, by the usual duration of the session of parliament. Affluent people, who divided their time between London and the country, had less inducement then to absent themselves from the metropolis after the winter had set in, than they have now; and the state of the roads and means of communication, rendered it convenient to the legislature to meet before travelling became, if not dangerous, at least very troublesome and annoying. Bath and Tunbridge Wells were fashionable resorts, and spread their attractions to induce their visitors to prolong their stay: but Ramsgate and Brighton were only obscure fishing villages, and Cheltenham was but starting into existence. The inclinations and tastes of the upper classes were much more frivolous than they are now—for he who compares habits and customs can not fail to remark that, however unequally, *all* classes are moving forward. We find frequent intimations in the novels and plays of the last century, of the aversion with which the "dull" country was regarded by the fashionables of the time, and their eager longings for the return of the London "season," with its round of heartless dissipation, its balls, and routs, and plays. Now, there is more intellect, more taste, more rational enjoyment of life among the upper classes; and the improvement which has been effected, gives us a hopeful earnest of what may still further be accomplished, not only among them, but in every rank and grade of society.

During the present century, the commencement of the London "season" has been gradually postponed. Since 1806, the opening of the session of parliament, has been veering from November to January: since 1822, it has almost settled into a rule (unless, of course, when interrupted by anything extraordinary) that it should not be opened till about the month of February, the session extending till July, or the beginning of August. Thus the London "season" or winter, has been thrown into the months of spring and summer,

The "east" and "west" ends of London present a curious contrast with respect to the London season. In the city, trade and commerce flow on in their accustomed channels, unaffected by the vicissitudes of fashion. During the month of August, he who moves in fashionable circles may exclaim, "There is nobody in town!"—an expression which appears ridiculous and affected, amid the never-ending throngs of Fleet street or Cheapside. But at that period, in the fashionable streets and squares of the "west end," the expression has force and meaning. There, house after house appears deserted; the windows are closed with funeral-looking shutters; the streets, always more or less stately and quiet, are now silent and lonely; one would think that the inhabitants had fled from the approach of the plague, or of a hostile army. It is then that the haberdashers, and milliners, and tailors, and bootmakers, and artificial florists, not forgetting the "curiosity dealers," and all the other suppliers of the wants and wishes of the wealthy, at the west end, feel that the London



St. James's Street.—Drawing-Room at St. James's Palace.

season is closed. The tradesmen of Oxford street, Bond street, and St. James's, discharge their extra workmen, and their "regular hands" are but half employed. But after August and September have been passed, and October is well nigh gone, the winter trade begins. The inferior grades of the upper classes, who have no estates in the country, and who have been visiting the highlands, English watering-places, or the continent, return to town. At last, the new year arrives; parliament assembles, town houses are occupied, and the hotels are filled. Still it is remarkable how a bleak northeast wind, and a chilling spring, will retard the west end trade, as well as vegetation. But court DRAWING-ROOMS and LEVEES are announced; the easter holydays are over; the spring becomes mild and genial; and all becomes bustle and activity.

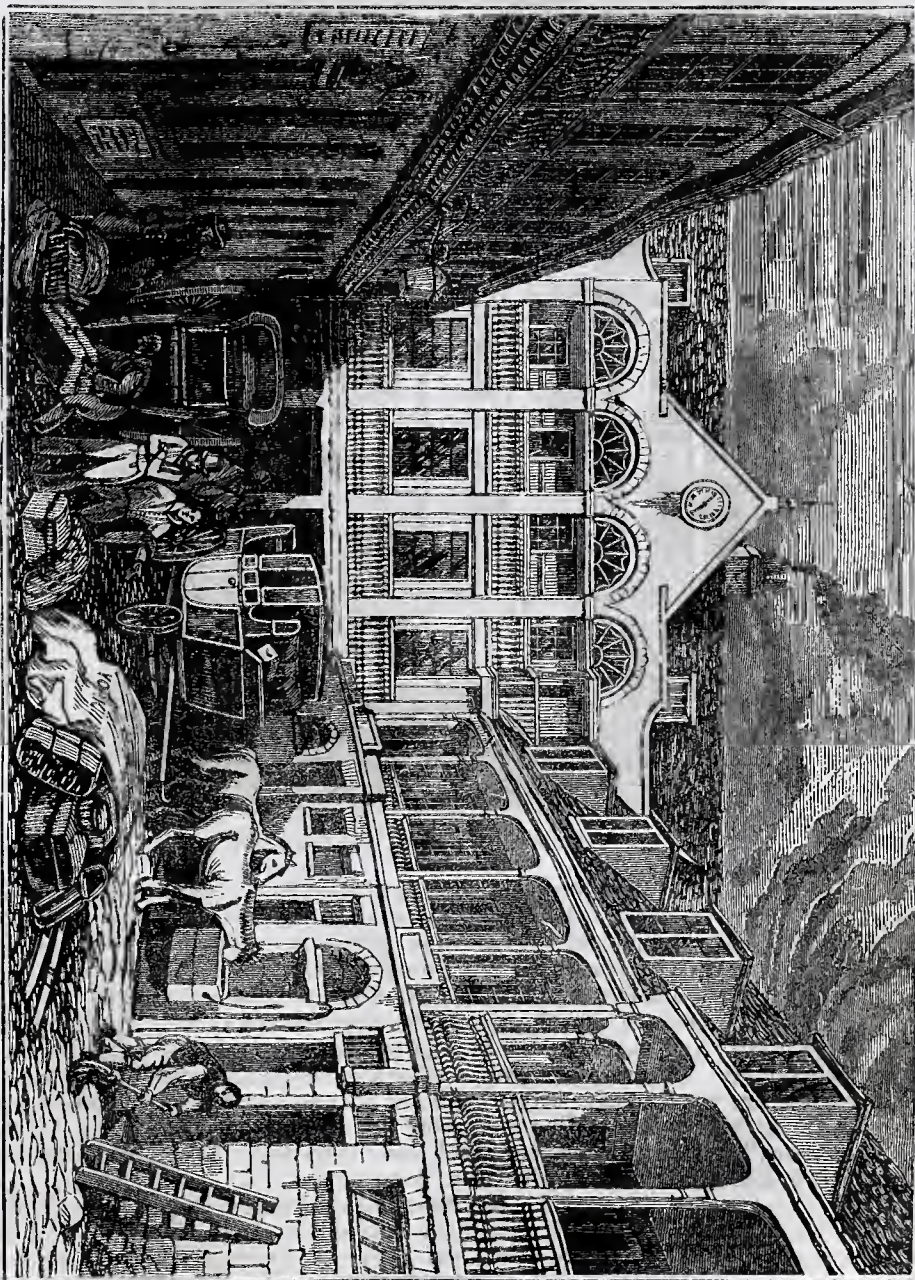
It would be interesting if we could attain correct statistical information respecting the numbers who arrive in London during the season, and the increase and decrease of west-end trade at different periods of the year. There are more than four hundred members of the house of lords, and the house of commons is composed of six hundred and fifty-eight members. If out of this number only four hundred bring their families with them to London, and each household (connexions and dependants, exclusive of servants) is composed, on an average, of but twelve individuals, we have four thousand eight hundred persons, say five thousand, brought to London by the meeting of parliament. Then, if we allow two families of wealthy individuals for every one family connected with a member of the legislature, with the same number to each household, that will give nine thousand six hundred, making altogether, say fifteen thousand persons. If the daily expenditure of these one thousand two hundred families is ten pound each, that will produce twelve thousand pounds a day. But this is mere conjecture, and is much less, probably, than the average fashionable expenditure. Perhaps upward of fifty thousand (exclusive of foreigners and temporary visitors) come to London during the "season." Comparing the months of April and May with those of August and September, there is probably a difference of twenty thousand pounds a day, in the business transacted by the west-end tradesmen.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

INNS, HOTELS, TAVERNS, PUBLIC-HOUSES, AND CLUBS.

At present in the metropolis there are three hundred and ninety-six inns, hotels, and taverns, many of them magnificent, all of them more or less spacious and extensive establishments. If to this we add a number of large private boarding-houses, we shall have at least four hundred and thirty houses for the reception and entertainment of strangers residing temporarily in London. But this is exclusive of the great number of licensed victuallers (that is keepers of public-houses), especially in the city and about the docks, who accommodate strangers, of coffee-rooms and eating-houses, some of which have lodging-houses attached to them, and of the many private houses which are professionally lodging-houses. Of the numbers of these we can not arrive at any satisfactory approximation.

The number of fashionable hotels—that is, of establishments where everything is on the highest scale of elegance and expense, and which may be fitly termed *palace-inns*, is about thirty. They are all situated, as might be naturally expected, at the "west end." For instance Mivart (a well-known name in the lists of fashionable arrivals and departures) has two hotels, one in Brook street, Grosvenor square, the other in Davis street, Berkeley square; Warren's hotel is in Regent street; Fenton's in St. James's street; Limmer's in George street, Hanover square; the Clarendon, both in New Bond street and in Albemarle street; the Burlington, in Old Burlington street; Wright's hotel, in Dover street, Piccadilly; and so of the rest, all of them lying at no very considerable distance from each other. The increase of notels has, however, been much checked by the establishment of "clubs," of which we shall speak hereafter.



The Old Blue Bear, Holborn.



Tavern, corner of Bow Street and Long Acre.

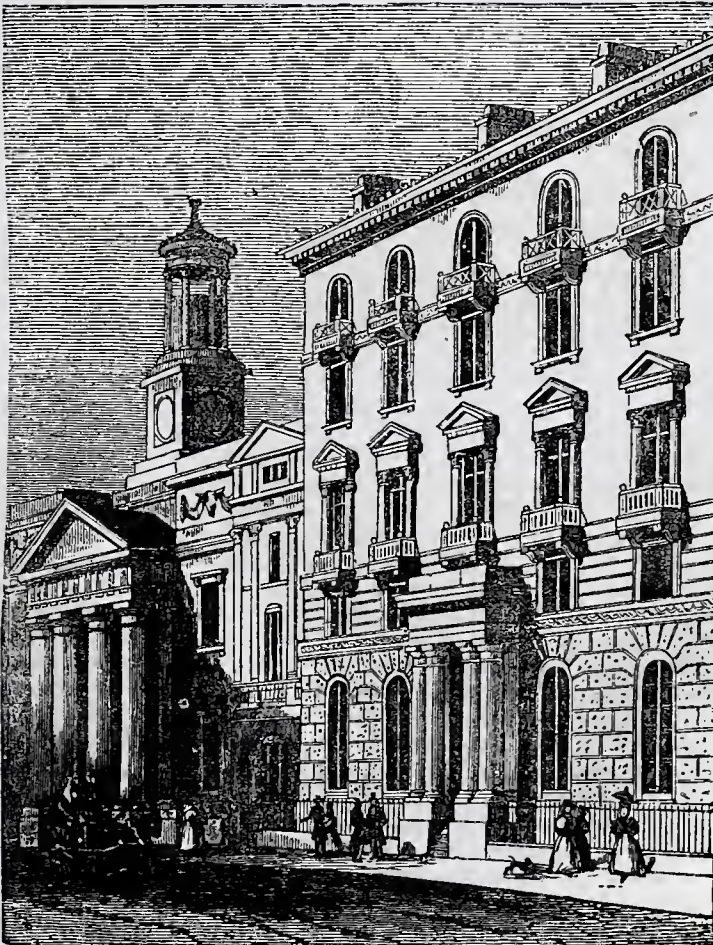
The commercial inns are more scattered about London. Many of these, though not aiming at the elegance of the fashionable hotels, are yet wealthy, long-established, and comfortable houses. Those from which the mail-coaches run, are the Golden Cross, at Charing Cross; the Bolt-in-Tun, Fleet street; the White Horse, Fetter lane; the Bell and Crown, Holborn; the Saracen's Head, Snowhill; the Swan with two Necks, Lad lane; the Spread Eagle, Gracechurch street; the Belle Sauvage, Ludgate hill; and the Bull and Mouth, opposite the general postoffice, in St. Martin's-le-Grand. There are a number of other inns, which though not running mail coaches, are yet extensive stage-coach establishments; and many others which are eminent as wagon-inns. The engraving (on p. 363) represents the "George and Blue Boar," in Holborn, as it appeared some years ago. It has since been considerably altered, and the open galleries no longer exist.

Some of the taverns are well-known, from their connexion with political, charitable, or festive meetings. Such, for instance, are the London, and the City of London taverns, both in Bishopsgate street; the Albion, in Aldersgate street; the Crown and Anchor, in the Strand; the Freemasons' tavern, in Lincoln's Inn Fields; the British coffeehouse and tavern, in Cockspur street; the London coffeehouse and tavern on Ludgate hill; and even, to go out of the heart of London to its southern verge, the Horns tavern fronting Kennington common. Other taverns have various characteristics. Lloyd's coffeehouse, and Garraway's, the first at the Royal exchange, the other not far from it, in 'Change alley, are associated with marine intelligence, underwriters, stock-jobbing, and auctions; the Chapter coffeehouse, a grave and quiet-

looking place in Paternoster row, close to St. Paul's churchyard, is much dedicated to the business of booksellers; Peel's, in Fleet street, and Deacon's, in Walbrook, are sought for by those who wish to consult numerous files of newspapers of every description, provincial and foreign; the lover of literary reminiscences and associations may stroll down Fleet street, seek for Dr. Johnson's tavern, in Bolt court, endeavor to ascertain the site of the Devil tavern, where Ben Jonson held his club, and Swift, and Addison, and Garth, and Steele, have dined, or else turn aside into the Mitre. If he mourn the almost total obliteration of the old taverns of the classical eras of Elizabeth and Anne, he may cross over to Southwark, and though even there the hand of improvement is at work, still he will find some traces of "former days."

In London there are upward of seventy public-houses bearing the name of the "Grapes," sixty-two "Ships," and twenty-eight ships combined with something else, such as "Ship and Shovel," and "Ship and Shears;" no less than two hundred and five "White Bears," "White Harts," "White Horses," and "White Swans;" eighty-eight "King's Arms," and sixty-nine "King's Heads;" fifty-six Queen's Heads and Arms; seventy-four "Crowns," and fifty-three combined Crowns; fifty-six "Coach and horses," twenty-six "Bells," nineteen "Feathers," and the same number of "Fountains."

It does not appear that there existed in London anything of the nature of a club, that is, as Dr. Johnson defines the word, "an assembly of good fellows meeting under certain conditions," before the reign of Elizabeth. The times were doubtless too rude and unsettled, and liberty of action too much circumscribed, to tolerate the existence of any regular convivial association, whose objects might not have been under-



Club Chambers, Regent Street

stood, or might have been misinterpreted. "Good fellows" must, therefore, have been contented to seek each other's company at taverns, in accidental or preconcerted meetings, not daring (probably not thinking of it) to establish a permanent association. But in the more settled and brilliant times of her of whom Andrew Marvel exclaims,

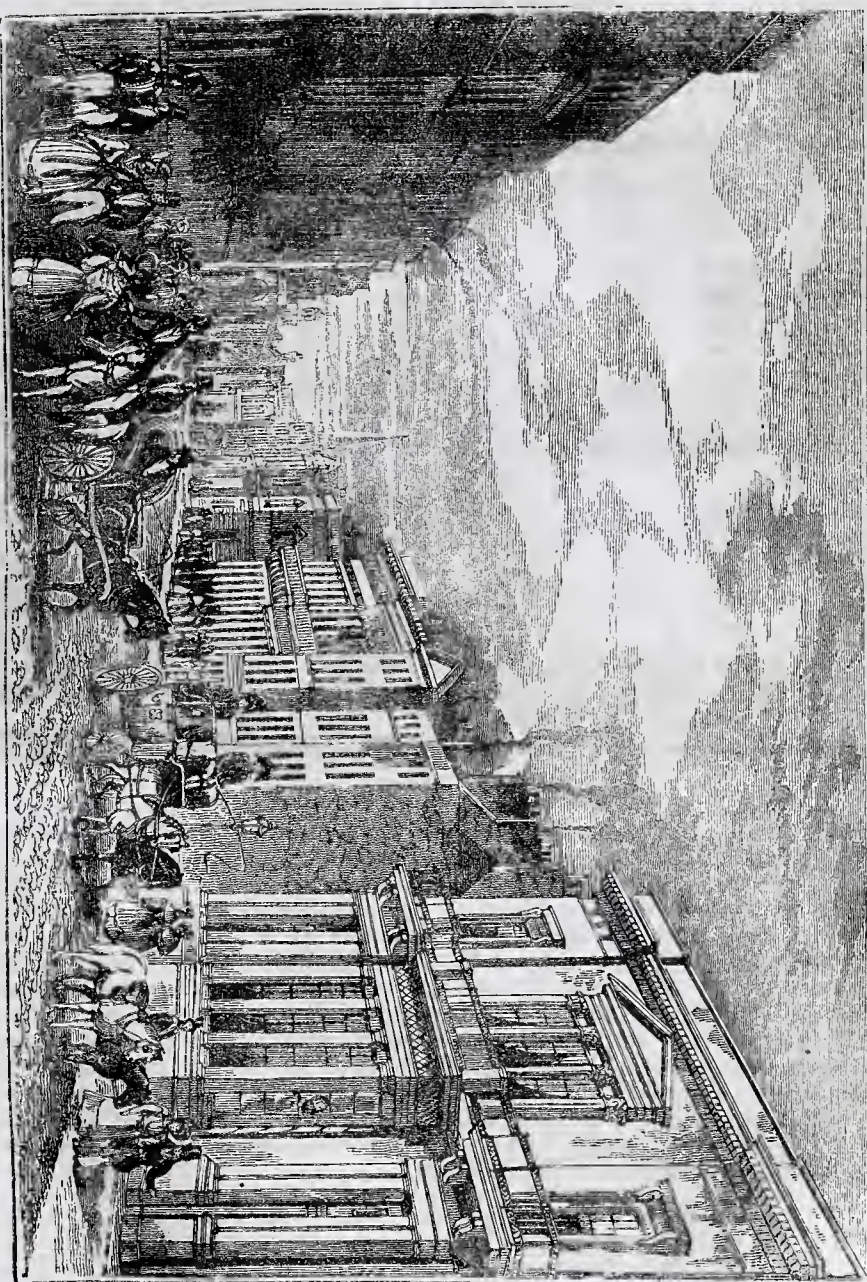
"None ever reigned like old Bess in the ruff,"

the remarkable men of a remarkable time, established the first clubs that are recorded in our literature. Ben Jonson's club, for which he wrote his "*Leges Convivales*," or laws of conviviality, met at the Devil tavern, which stood near Temple bar; and at the Mermaid tavern, in Friday street, which runs off Cheapside, was held a still more famous club, of which Shakspeare, Beaumont and Fletcher, Sir Walter Raleigh, Selden, Donne, and others, were members.

After the Restoration, a principal resort of literary men, wits, talkers, and idlers, was Will's coffeehouse, which stood at the corner of Bow street. Here Dryden reigned, by universal consent, as the literary monarch of the age. But it is painful to contemplate the dissolute period of the reign of Charles II. The conduct of a large portion of the higher and better-educated classes of that time appears almost as if a general determination had been come to, of employing all the ingenuity of intellect to degrade and brutify the diviner faculties of man.

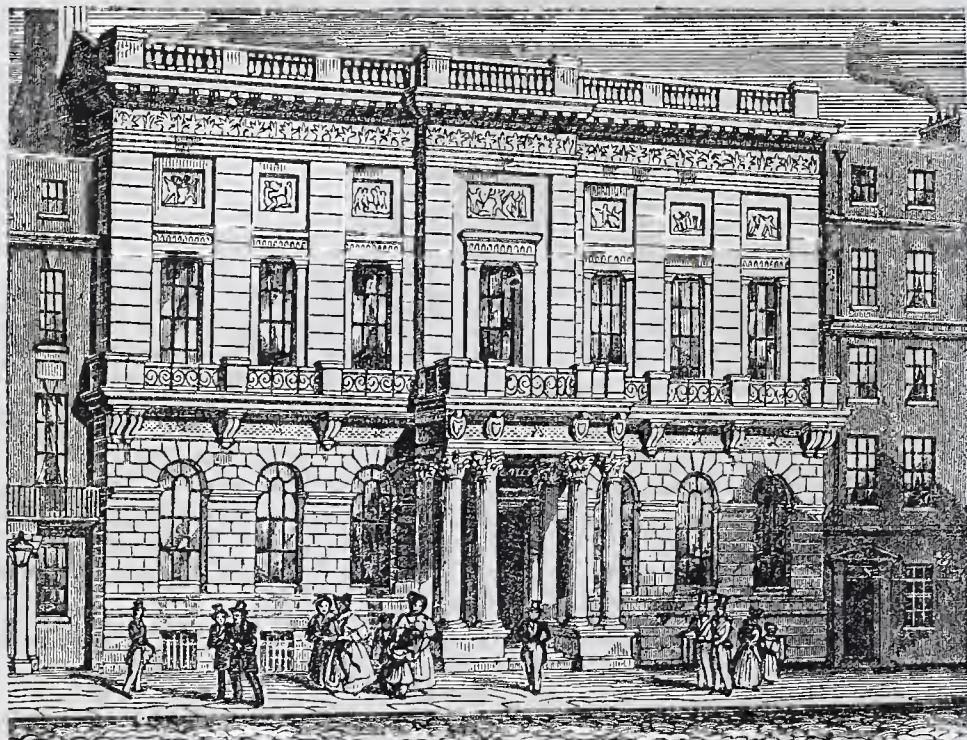
There were a great number of clubs in existence in London during the early part of the eighteenth century; and Steele and Addison, with their delightful ideal *paper* clubs in the *Tatler* and *Spectator*, contributed much to spread them, and bring them into fashion with all classes. But evil as well as good sprung from the great increase of these associations. If literary and educated men met together, to enjoy in easy and convivial intercourse the outpourings of wit and fancy, there were not wanting others who imitated what they did not understand, and substituted brutality and drunkenness for exhilaration and pleasant enjoyment. A royal proclamation was issued in April, 1721, for the suppression of "certain scandalous clubs or societies of young persons who meet together," whose conduct was certainly of a most improper kind.

What a change has a few years produced! "Good fellows" may still meet in taverns and coffeehouses under Dr. Johnson's "certain conditions," but their proceedings are unmarked and unknown to any but themselves. The word "club" has been carried off by a new species of association, which has produced a great refinement in the art of luxury. It has been objected, that these societies are not "clubs," in the "good old English" acceptation. But it seems idle to dispute the appropriation of the word—these associations are, emphatically, "the clubs of London." The stranger who walks along Pall-Mall, and turns up St. James street, will pass a number of the finest buildings in the metropolis—these are "club-houses," erected by the societies to which they belong, and appropriated exclusively to their purposes. Three or four of the clubs are avowedly political associations, admission to them being supposed to stamp the political opinions and predilections of the members. Others occupy neutral ground, where educated, literary, travelled, and professional men are supposed to congregate, without reference to particular notions or opinions. What are termed "subscription" club-houses, are the property of private individuals; and one or two of these enjoy a rather equivocal reputation, being supposed to be frequented by those who are fond of gambling. If the exterior of the club-houses (in Pall-Mall especially) attract the eye by their architectural beauties, no less will the interior please the visiter by the elegance with which they are fitted up. Here the members are in their own houses—they are "at home," surrounded by the comforts and attention of a fashionable hotel. They can stroll down to their "clubs," pass the day as they please, reading or writing, dine singly or in company, join in conversation, or retreat into a corner with the newspaper or the last "Review." The members of these clubs are admitted by a ballot election; they pay a certain sum as entrance money, and an annual subscription. The large number of members of which generally each club is composed, the eager competition which exists for filling up vacancies as they occur, the new clubs and the new club-houses which are constantly springing up—display, in a remarkable manner, the power of combination and concentration. The scene presented by Pall-Mall and St. James's street can not be matched; for nowhere in the world can be seen, in so short a time, so many noble buildings devoted by associations of men to their personal enjoyment, comfort, and convenience.



Pall Mall, with the Garden and other Club-Houses.

There are thirty-six principal clubs in London, embracing, probably, not less than 20,000 members. Of course some individuals may be members of several clubs. These clubs, too, are in addition to the great number of literary and scientific associations in the metropolis, of which we shall have occasion to speak in treating of another class of London characteristics. The following clubs are in Pall-Mall: the Union, in Trafalgar square, Pall-Mall east; the University club, for members of the universities of Cambridge and Oxford; the Junior University club, nearly facing



Oxford and Cambridge University Club-House.

the British institution; the Athenæum; the United Service, for officers—(the Junior United Service is in Charles street, St. James's square); the Travellers'; the Carlton; and the Reform club. In St. James's street there are Boodle's club, White's club, the St. James's, and the Junior St. James's; the West India club, Brookes's, the Cocoa Tree club, Arthur's, the Albion, Graham's, and Crockford's. In St. James's square, which lies enclosed between Pall-Mall and the east end of Piccadilly, there are the Wyndham club and the Parthenon. The Clarence and the Clarendon are in Waterloo place, close by Pall-Mall; the Oriental is in Hanover square; the Portland in Stafford place, Oxford street; the Royal Naval in New Bond street; the Alfred in Albemarle street; and the "Cercle des Etrangers" in Regent street. Proceeding eastward, we find that the Westminster chess club hold their meetings at No. 101 in the Strand; the Garrick club in King street, Covent garden; the city Conservative in Threadneedle street; and the city of London club has a handsome club-house in Broad street.

CHAPTER XXIX.

EXTERNAL AND INTERNAL COMMUNICATION.

ONE of the most pleasing of the outside shows of London is that of the daily departure of the mail-coaches. They start every night at eight o'clock, from the post-office, except on Sunday evenings, when they go off an hour earlier. A few of the mail-coaches, which start from the "west-end" of London, do not come up to the postoffice, the mails being conveyed to them in mail-carts. All the rest arrive, a short time before the hour of starting, from their respective inns—the Blossoms, Lawrence lane; the Swan with Two Necks, Lad lane; the Spread Eagle, Gracechurch street; the Belle Sauvage, Ludgate hill, &c., &c. Most of the names of these inns are ancient, and carry with them interesting associations.

The postoffice building is about three hundred and eight-nine feet long, one hundred and thirty feet wide, and sixty-four feet high; it is built externally of Portland stone, and, with the exception of the principal front, is entirely plain, and without any attempt at architectural display. The entrances to the building are through the central portico in the west or principal side, and by a corresponding doorway in the east front in Foster Lane. The space between these two points is occupied by the grand public hall, which is eighty feet long, by about sixty feet wide, divided into a centre and two aisles, by two ranges of six columns, these columns, which have corresponding pilasters, are of the Ionic order, constructed of Portland stone, and standing upon pedestals of granite. The centre of the hall is so much higher than the side aisles as to admit of the insertion of windows, by which it is principally lighted.

Entering from the principal front, the offices on the right hand are appropriated to the foreign letter and twopenny post departments, the receiver-general's, the accountant's, and the secretary's departments. On the opposite, or northern side are the inland, the ship-letter, and the newspaper offices. At the eastern, or Foster Lane end of this aisle, is a staircase leading to the letter-bill, dead, missent, and returned letter offices. In the eastern front, north of the centre, is a vestibule where the letter-bags are received, and whence they are despatched from and to the mails. The inland office communicates with this vestibule, and is eighty-eight feet long, fifty-six feet wide, and twenty-eight feet high. The letter carriers' office, which adjoins, is one hundred and three feet long, thirty-five wide, and thirty-three high. The letters to and from the West Indies, and the continent of North America, have an office expressly appropriated to them, and which is likewise on this side of the building. The comptroller's and mail-coach offices are also in this quarter.

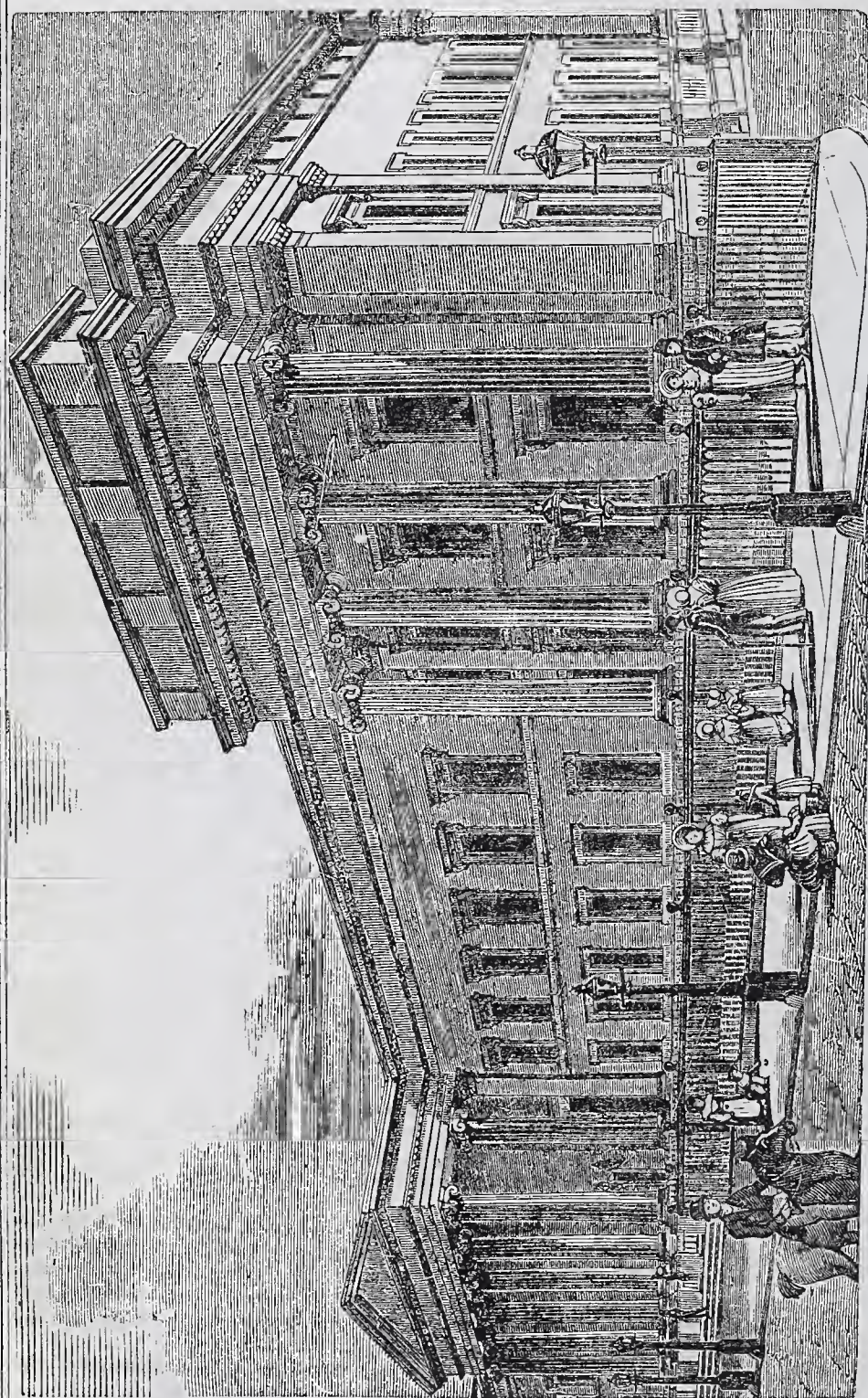
It might occasion some confusion if the communication between the offices in the northern and southern divisions of the building were carried on through the public hall. This disadvantage is obviated by means of a tunnel, which runs under the hall, in which the letters are conveyed between the departments by the aid of ingeniously contrived machinery.

The basement is vaulted, and consequently fire-proof. It contains the armory and mail-guards' room, the servants' offices; and also an apparatus for warming the building by means of heated air, a patent gasmeter, and a governor for regulating the supply of gas to between seven hundred and eight hundred argand burners distributed through the offices and passages.

The board-room, which is thirty-seven feet long and twenty-four feet broad, the secretary's rooms and his clerks' offices, are all on the first floor, and communicate by long passages with the solicitor's offices, and some others of minor importance. The second and third stories are occupied by sleeping apartments for the clerks of the foreign letter office, who are obliged to be constantly upon the spot to receive the foreign mails, which arrive at all hours.

The building is altogether exceedingly well arranged for the convenience of the public, as well as the officers employed in its various departments, and is creditable to the taste and judgment of the architect, Mr. Smirke.

The London postoffice establishment comprises three principal departments, the



West Front of the London Postoffice.

inland office, the foreign office, and the distributing postoffice. In connexion with the inland office is the ship-letter office, for receiving and despatching letters for the colonies and foreign parts by private trading vessels, the letters so conveyed being subjected to a less rate of postage than letters transmitted by packets in the pay of government. Letters passing to and from the colonies come, likewise, within the management of the inland office, in London; being received in the first instance at an outpost, generally Falmouth, whence they are forwarded by the local postmasters, in the same manner as inland letters.

The routine business of the inland office is necessarily divided among several departments. The principal of these, besides the ship-letter office, are the by-letter, the dead-letter, the returned-letter, the letter-bill, the accountant-general's, and the receiver-general's offices: the latter of these officers acts as a check upon the postmaster-general, and consequently the appointment of the receiver-general rests not with the postmaster-general, but with the lords of the treasury. The receiver-general holds his office by patent.

It will perhaps exemplify sufficiently our description of the various functions of the different officers employed in the postoffice, if we describe the ordinary routine followed in the receipt and despatch of letters to and from London in 1835.

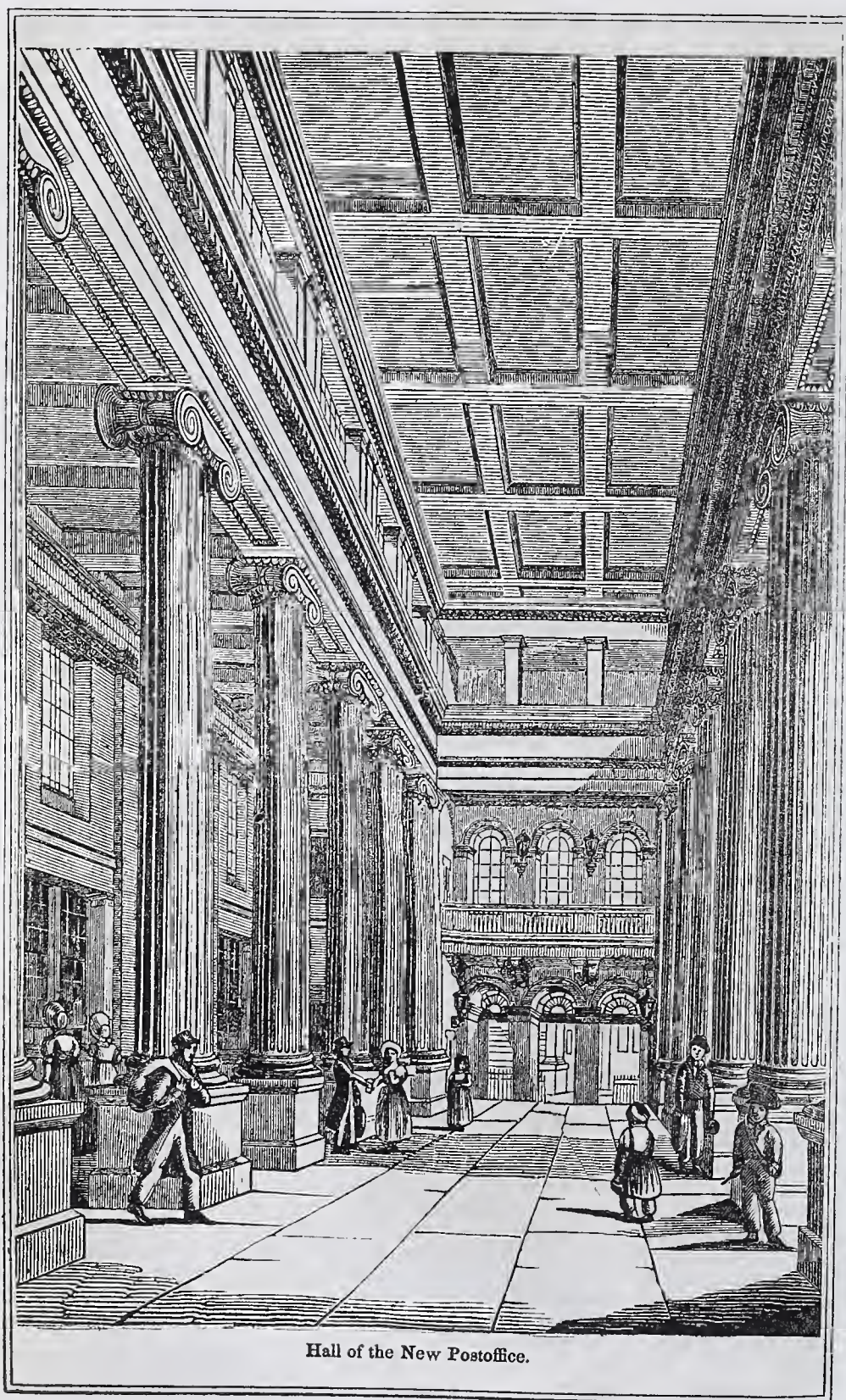
In addition to the principal office in St. Martin's-le-Grand, there are several branch offices and receiving houses in different part of the town, where letters can be deposited by the public. These letters are collected by the letter-carriers at a stated period in the evening, which must of course be earlier than the hour to which the principal office is continued open; and they are conveyed in sealed bags—generally by carts—to St. Martin's-le-Grand. The seals of these bags are broken by persons appointed for the purpose; and their contents are thrown out into great baskets, preparatory to their being sorted.

The first operation is that of stamping the letters: this is performed at several large tables, four or more persons, according to the pressure of business for the night, being employed at each table. This stamping is performed by messengers, or by the letter-carriers; and, as they are stamped, one person is employed to ascertain the number of letters that pass through the office in the evening.

When the letters are stamped, they are taken away to be assorted into about twenty divisions, on as many tables, corresponding with the lines of road by which they are to be sent. In this first sorting, all those letters are placed together which are intended for the same line of road, the different heaps being distinguished by numbers, as 1, 2, 3, &c.; and persons are employed continually in collecting together the corresponding heaps from all these tables in order to their being conveyed to other tables where other sorters are employed. A certain number of individuals are assigned to every road, and by them the letters are again assorted for the different places to which they are directed. By this division of the labor the work is much simplified. It would, indeed, be hardly possible to divide at one operation so great a number of letters, intended for so great a variety of places, as are brought together every evening in the London postoffice.

The next operation is that of placing the assorted letters in bags, previously to which, however, every letter is marked with the amount of postage to which it is liable; and an account is taken with the whole amount of postage, that the postmaster of the town to which they are going may be charged with the same. The bags are then sealed, and delivered into the custody of the mail-guards. Each of these guards, of course, takes charge of the mail-bags for every post-town through which the mail-coach, with which he travels, is to pass; and, to avoid confusion, he places the whole number of bags in a large sack, arranging them in the inverse order to that in which they are to be delivered. For instance, the Dover coach takes the mails for Welling, Dartford, Rochester, Sittingbourn, and Canterbury, as well as for the place of its ultimate destination. The Dover bag is therefore placed in the bottom of the sack—that for Canterbury next—then the Sittingbourn bag, and so on; the one for Welling, which will soonest be wanted, being placed nearest to the mouth of the sack. The coaches which travel to greater distances, and which pass through a great number of post-towns, must carry several of these sacks, which are always unsealed, for the greater convenience of taking out the bags on arrival at the different towns.

From the moment they are delivered into his custody, the guard is held responsible for the safety of the letter-bags. The box in the hind part of the coach, in which



Hall of the New Postoffice.

they are placed, is secured by a patent lock, the key of which is, of course, in the guard's possession. On arriving at a post-town, the bag intended for it is delivered into the custody of the postmaster, who, in his turn, commits to the guard any letters which may have been deposited in his office, directed to places through which the mail will pass; and these additional bags are immediately locked up in the coach.

The mode of proceeding with letters sent from the country to London is similar to what has just been described. They are stamped and *taxed*—that is, the amount of postage is marked upon them by the postmaster—by whom they are then enclosed in sealed bags and given into the custody of the guard.

The arrival of the mail-coaches in London from almost all parts of the country takes place, as already mentioned, as nearly as possible at the same time. In the ordinary state of the roads the whole of these coaches usually reach the postoffice within half an hour of each other, and between 5 and 6 o'clock in the morning.

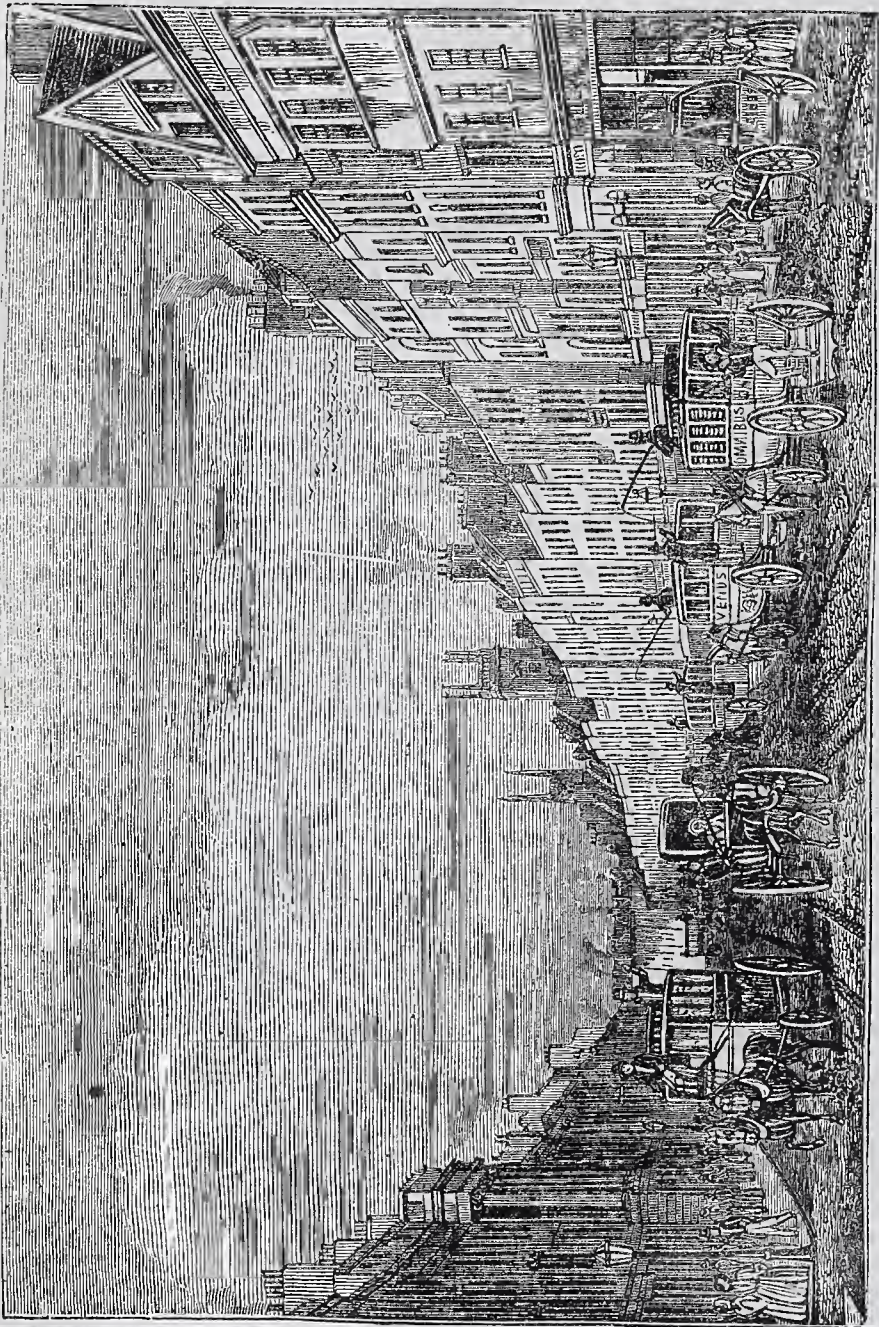
The bags are brought on their arrival by a messenger to certain junior clerks called tick clerks, who take an account of them to see whether all are received, and to make a note of any that may be missing, for the information of the superintending president. The bags of each mail-coach, successively as they arrive, are then distributed among fourteen clerks, two of whom are stationed at each of seven tables. The first duty of these clerks is to see that each bag is properly secured; each clerk then opens the several bags allotted to him. His next duty is to ascertain that the amount of the paid letters is correctly entered upon the bill which the postmaster transmits from the country in each bag, and to certify that he has done so by writing his initials upon the bill. In case of error a second clerk is applied to, to check the computation, and the true charge is entered in a book kept for the purpose. It is also the duty of the fourteen clerks to make transcripts in a book of the addresses of letters containing cash or triukets, which the postmasters are instructed to enter upon their bills.

While the openers have been thus engaged, the unpaid and free letters will have been undergoing the process of being stamped and subsequently examined, the former as to the postage taxed upon them, and the latter as to the number of franks, by different persons stationed for each purpose at the respective tables. If any overcharge or undercharge be discovered, the correct amount of postage is substituted upon the letter, and an entry made of the corrections in a book which is kept for the purpose.

The business of stamping unpaid letters is performed by sixteen messengers. The paid letters, when checked, as above mentioned, by the opening clerks, are given over to be stamped and examined by two other clerks.

Portions of the letters, as they have undergone the process of stamping and examination, are, from time to time, delivered to letter-carriers, who are employed in the assorting of them, which in the first place is effected into fourteen grand divisions; immediately after which the letters are taken by other letter-carriers, who sort them in divisions corresponding with the districts of actual delivery. In the progress of this sorting, the letters are sent in small parcels to the tellers, who cast up the amount of each parcel, and deliver a ticket of each charge to the check clerk. These parcels are then deposited in boxes provided for each district, and subsequently retold by the letter-carrier, by whom they are to be accounted for; and he states the amount of his telling to the check clerk, to see that it corresponds with the tellers' tickets. The carriers then set out in order to deliver the letters; and in order to expedite this business as much as possible, a plan was first put in operation when the new postoffice was opened for business. Those letter-carriers whose walks are at a considerable distance from the office, take their stations in carriages built something in the form of an omnibus, and are conveyed as near as possible to the scene of their duties. The postmen are packed in these carriages after the same principle adopted in placing the mail-bags in the sack; the man who has the greatest distance to go gets first into the carriage, while he who is to quit it the earliest gets in the last. By this contrivance there is much less difference than formerly between the time of delivering letters at the near and the more distant parts of the town; while the greater convenience afforded by the enlarged space and well-considered arrangements of the new office have occasioned the sorting and other preliminaries to be got through in much less time than formerly.

The yard round the postoffice, from which the mail-coaches start, is separated from the street by an iron railing, through which the spectators can see the process



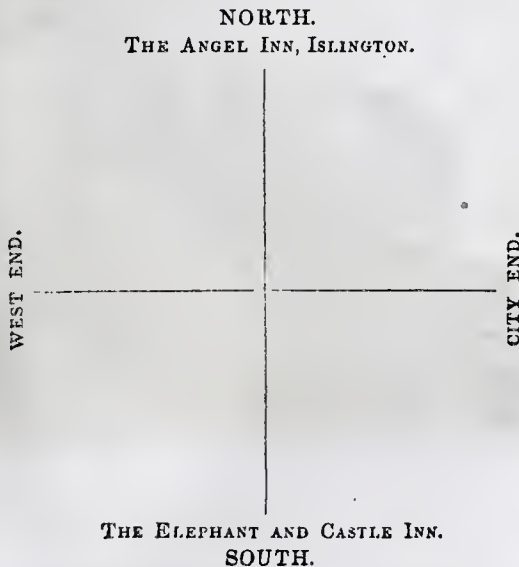
Holburn, from Middle Row, looking east—Omnibusses.

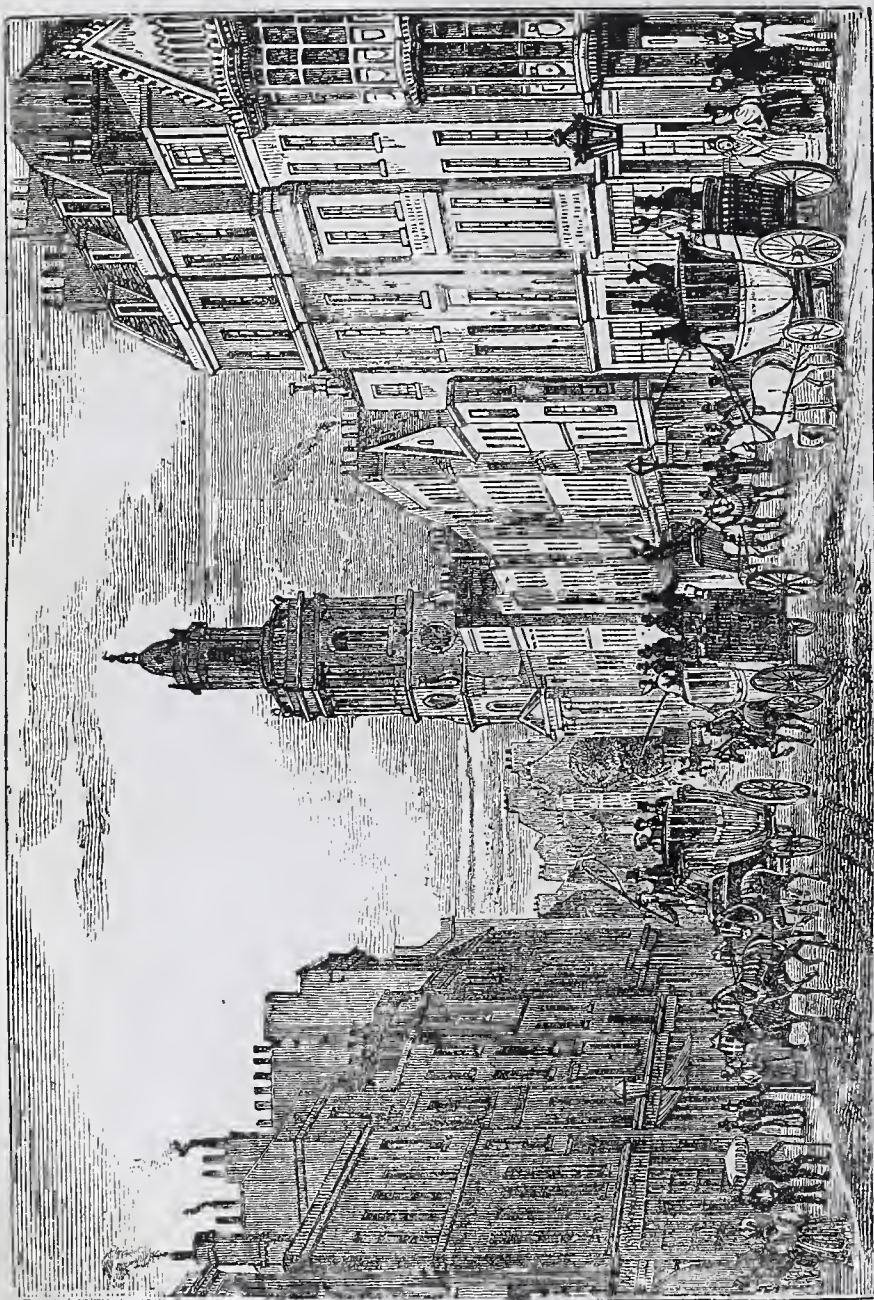
of packing the mail-bags. Each mail-coach takes the mail-bags of the various towns and places on its route, and also the mails for places in the neighborhood of the route, whence they are conveyed by cross-mails. When eight o'clock has arrived, they all prepare to start; the guards secure their valuable packages, the coachmen seize the reins, and, one by one, the mails set off, issuing by the gates on either side of the postoffice. There is no confusion or irregular bustle, yet there is no delay; in a few minutes they all disappear, and the twanging of the horns is lost in the noise of the streets—before midnight the total number started have run, in the aggregate, upward of a thousand miles.

The daily regularity of this proceeding is one of the triumphs of modern civilization. The inhabitants of the remote Orkneys or Shetlands can calculate on receiving the news of this great metropolis (and all that it has gathered during the day from every quarter of the world), in little more than a hundred hours; the Highlander, whose country a century ago was nearly as much a "land unknown" as is now the interior of Africa or Australia, obtains ample intelligence in as many days as it once took weeks, or even months, for vague rumors to reach the border. But notwithstanding the highly improved state of the present mail-system, the increase of the population, and of trade and commerce, demand additional facilities of communication.

There are fifty-four four-horse mails in England, and forty-nine pair-horse mails. The greatest speed travelled is ten miles five furlongs per hour; the slowest speed six miles; and the average speed eight miles seven furlongs per hour. The average mileage paid for four-horse mails is $1\frac{1}{2}$ *d.* per mile. The number of four-horse mails in Ireland is thirty, and in Scotland ten.

In order to enable the reader who may not have visited London, to understand the direction of the routes which are occupied by the short stages and omnibuses plying in the neighborhood of the metropolis, and through its streets, let us take the following method of explanation. The Thames flows from west to east. In passing through, or rather by, London, its course is somewhat circuitous. The Surrey side of London, or the south side of the Thames, is very populous—the parliamentary boroughs of Southwark and Lambeth containing upward of 300,000 inhabitants. But it is chiefly on the north or Middlesex side of the Thames that the wealth, fashion, and business of London lie. The Thames, in coming from the west, makes a great sweep from south to north, forming a bend, in which is contained the houses of parliament, and the government edifices of Whitehall. From Charing Cross eastward the river keeps a rather straight course, so that the Strand and Fleet street, which run parallel to it, may be represented (not literally but comparatively) by a straight line. Keeping this in mind, let us take the following diagram for illustration:—





Bishopsgate Street—Short Stages.

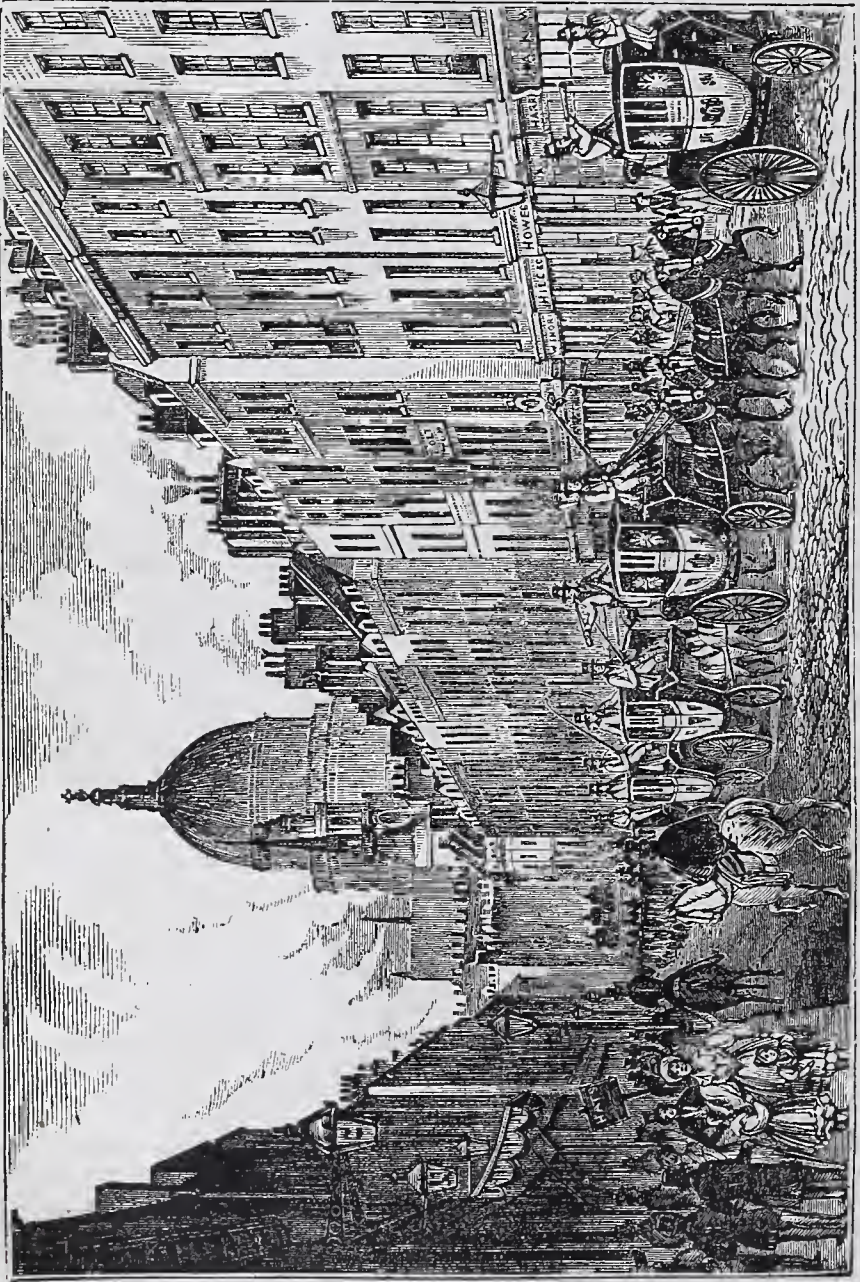
Supposing the cross line to represent the thoroughfare running from the "west end" by Charing Cross, through the Strand, Fleet street, Ludgate hill, and Cheapside, to the bank, Royal exchange and Mansion-house, let us direct our attention to the north and south points. The mail and stage-coaches going by the north roads generally call at the Angel inn and the Peacock tavern, which are close to each other, in Islington; and those going south call at the Elephant and Castle inn, in Newington. These two northern and southern points, therefore, are great gathering places and stations for short stages and omnibuses. Between the Angel inn at Islington and the Elephant and Castle inn there are seventeen omnibuses plying. These vehicles start from Islington, taking generally a supply of passengers for the city, there being but few who require to go the whole way to the Elephant and Castle. There are two roads, meeting at a point at the Angel, which lead into the city—one called the city road, which leads direct to the bank and Royal exchange; the other termed the Goswell street road, which keeps a little more south than the city road, and leads into St. Martin's-le-Grand, past the general postoffice. This road the omnibuses take which ply between the Angel inn and the Elephant and Castle inn. A number of passengers generally leave the vehicles at the postoffice: they then, passing down Newgate street run through Farringdon street, past the front of the Fleet prison, and across the Thames by Blackfriars bridge. The length of this route is about three miles. In addition to the omnibuses plying between the Angel inn and the Elephant and Castle inn, there are three plying between the latter and Charing Cross, at the "west end."

On the south side of the river Thames are a great number of districts and villages which, a few years ago, presented fields and lanes between them; but which are now, by the filling up of their interstices, beginning to lose all appearance of country. Along the banks of the river, in Southwark and Lambeth, are the tanners, and dyers, and hatters, and hop-merchants, colormen, and druggists, with their factories and warehouses; further south lie Camberwell and Walworth, Newington and Kennington, Peckham and Brixton. At the Elephant and Castle inn vehicles presenting different shapes and varieties may be found—the long close omnibus; the fly, a gig-like thing hung round with curtains; the stage, that once, perhaps, run long journeys, now condemned to short—all awaiting the pleasure of the holiday-maker, or the will of the man on business. Some are for Norwood, with its spa and its gipsy-parties; others for Dulwich and its picture-gallery; or Streatham, where resided the hospitable brewer and his literary lady, whose house was so long a home to Dr. Johnson. Here, too, but more southwest, are Putney, and Kew, and Richmond; and southeast, in Kent, Deptford, and Greenwich, and Lewisham, and Blackheath.

The Angel inn at Islington presents a busy scene. A road, called the New road, comes up from the "west end," and just where this inn stands, joins the city road. Here, between the "west end" and the bank, ply fifty-four omnibuses. Through Islington, too, pass a great number of vehicles, to Holloway, Highbury, Hornsey, &c. Hornsey wood, a favorite spot for excursions, is supposed to preserve in its name a relic of the great forest which once stood on the north side of London, and which abounded with bears, wolves, and wild-boars. Away, northwest, rise the high grounds of Hampstead and Highgate, much resorted to by those who seek to escape from the fogs of London to a purer air. The country in this direction is dotted over with villas and villages, and affords some delightful views. Indeed the environs of London are, speaking generally, admirable. The weeping atmosphere which in winter keeps the city in darkness, and the pavement perpetually moist and miry, imparts in summer a green and refreshing verdure to all the fields around the metropolis. And thus the pent-up citizen, whose business or means will not permit him to visit the brown plains of France, need not fret himself for that. He can take an omnibus to Hampstead, and for a shilling, with ease to himself and profit to his carrier, look down from Hampstead heath on one of the finest prospects to be had in the neighborhood of any capital city.

The populous villages of Hackney, Homerton, Clapton, Edmonton, immortalized by the adventures of John Gilpin, Enfield, celebrated in former days for its chase (a large tract of woodland, which was well stocked with deer, but has been disforested), and further off, Epping and Henhault forests, which together cover 10,000 acres, and contain some fine trees, lie on the north and northeast of London.

At the city end of London, in Bishopsgate street and Gracechurch street, in Corn



Fleet Street.—Procession of Mail Coaches on the Queen's Birthday.

hill and Leadenhall street, from the bank and Royal exchange, are to be found vehicles running to the various places we have named. It has been stated on good authority that about 1,600 trips or journeys are made every day through Cheapside by short stages, omnibuses, hackney-coaches, and cabriolets.

There is an annual procession of mail-coaches on the queen's birthday, both in London and in Dublin. Von Raumer, in "Letters from England," speaking of the London procession, says: "Such a splendid display of carriages and four as these mail-coaches and their horses afforded could not be found or got together in all Berlin. It was a real pleasure to see them in all the pride and strength which, in an hour or two later, was to send them in every direction with incredible rapidity to every corner of England."

Hackney-coaches and sedan-chairs were, until the beginning of the present century, the only public vehicles in use in the streets of London. The sedan-chair has almost entirely disappeared. In the time of Hogarth it was considered as a courtly vehicle, and in one of his plates of the "Modern Rake's Progress," we see his man of fashion using it to go to St. James's. It continued to be used at a much later period, and does not appear to have been generally laid aside until the beginning of the present century. About five-and-twenty years ago a sedan was very commonly seen in the hall or lobby of gentlemen's houses, no longer used, but laid like a ship in ordinary.

Sedan-chairs were introduced by Charles I. on his return from his visit to Spain. When the duke of Buckingham, who received two of the three sedan-chairs which Charles brought from Spain, used them in London, a great clamor was raised against him by the populace, that he was reducing free-born Englishmen and Christians to the offices and condition of beasts of burden.

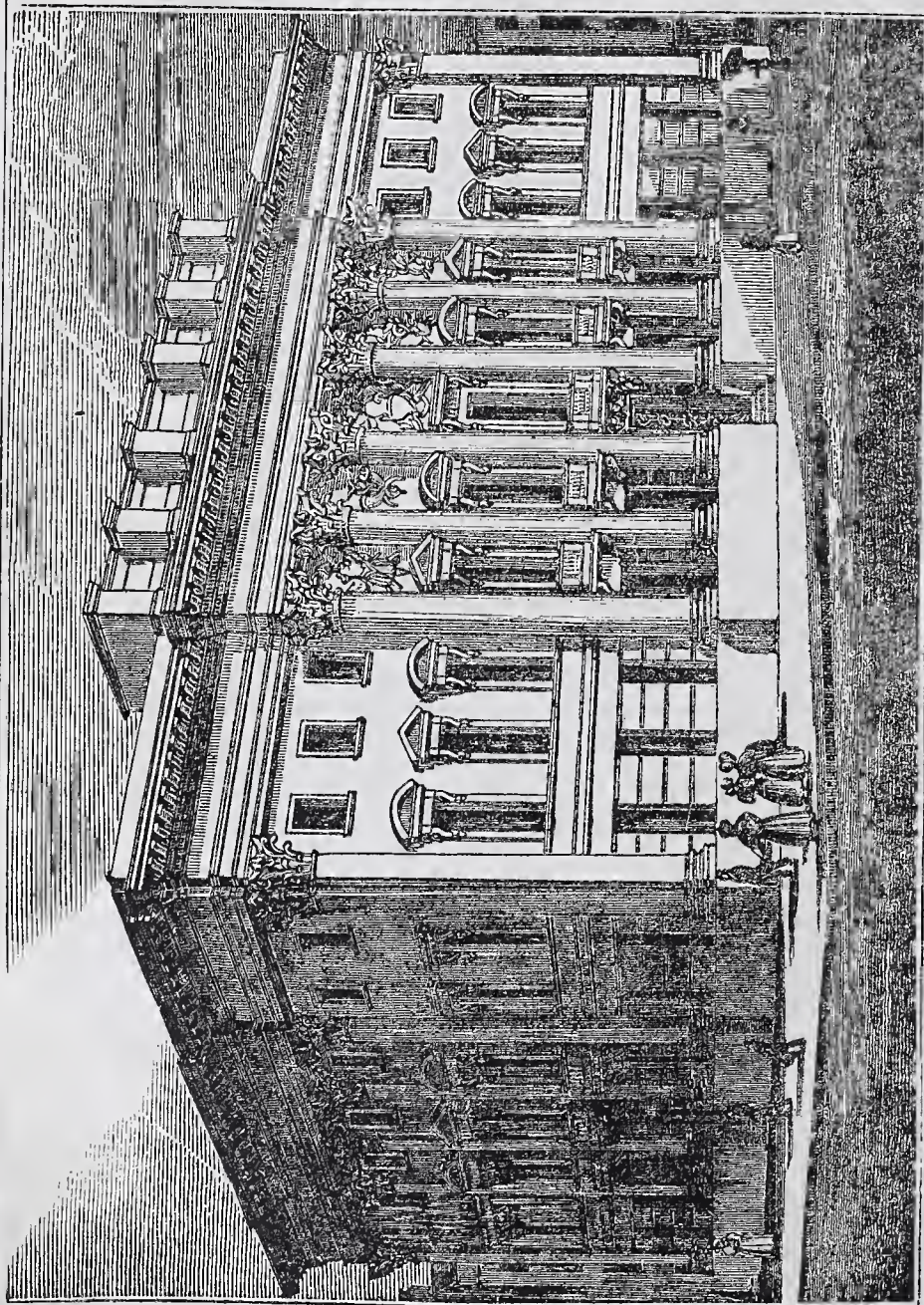
In 1826 the number of hackney-coaches and cabriolets in the metropolis was eleven hundred and fifty, paying a duty of 2*l.* per lunar month for each, which produced, including fines, 29,392*l.* In 1827 and 1828 the number was exactly twelve hundred; and in 1829 and 1830 (in the latter year omnibuses were introduced) the number was twelve hundred and sixty-five, producing a yearly duty of 32,000*l.* By the hackney-coach act passed in 1831, the number was directed not to exceed twelve hundred until the beginning of 1833, but since that period licenses have been granted without limitation as to number. The number of hackney-coaches and cabriolets at present licensed in the metropolis is seventeen hundred and seven. It would be difficult to arrive at a proper idea of the number of persons who use them, or the amount of money earned by them daily. It is understood, however, that the proprietors require from a guinea to twenty-five shillings a day from the drivers.

CHAPTER XXX.

THE "BANK" AND BANKING.—THE MINT.—THE EXCHANGE AND ITS NEIGHBORHOOD.

THE Jews and the Lombards were the earliest money-brokers. By Lombards, is generally understood merchants from the Italian republics of Genoa, Lucca, Florence, and Venice.

In the narrow street called Old 'Change, which runs from Cheapside toward the river, was formerly the office of the king's exchanger. The exchanging of the coin of the realm for foreign coin or bullion was early held to be an especial royal prerogative—a "flower of the crown." The "statute concerning false money," passed in 1299 (27 Ed. I.), inflicted the penalty of loss of goods and life for bringing in base money into the country; but permitted all persons, of whatever country or nation, to bring "to our exchange all sorts of money of good silver, of whatever foreign coin or whatever value they may be." In the act of Edward III., "It is accorded, that it shall be lawful for every man to exchange gold for silver, so that no man hold nor



Goldsmith's Hall.

take profit for making such exchange, upon forfeiture of the money so exchanged: except the king's exchangers, which take profit of such exchange, according to the ordinance made."

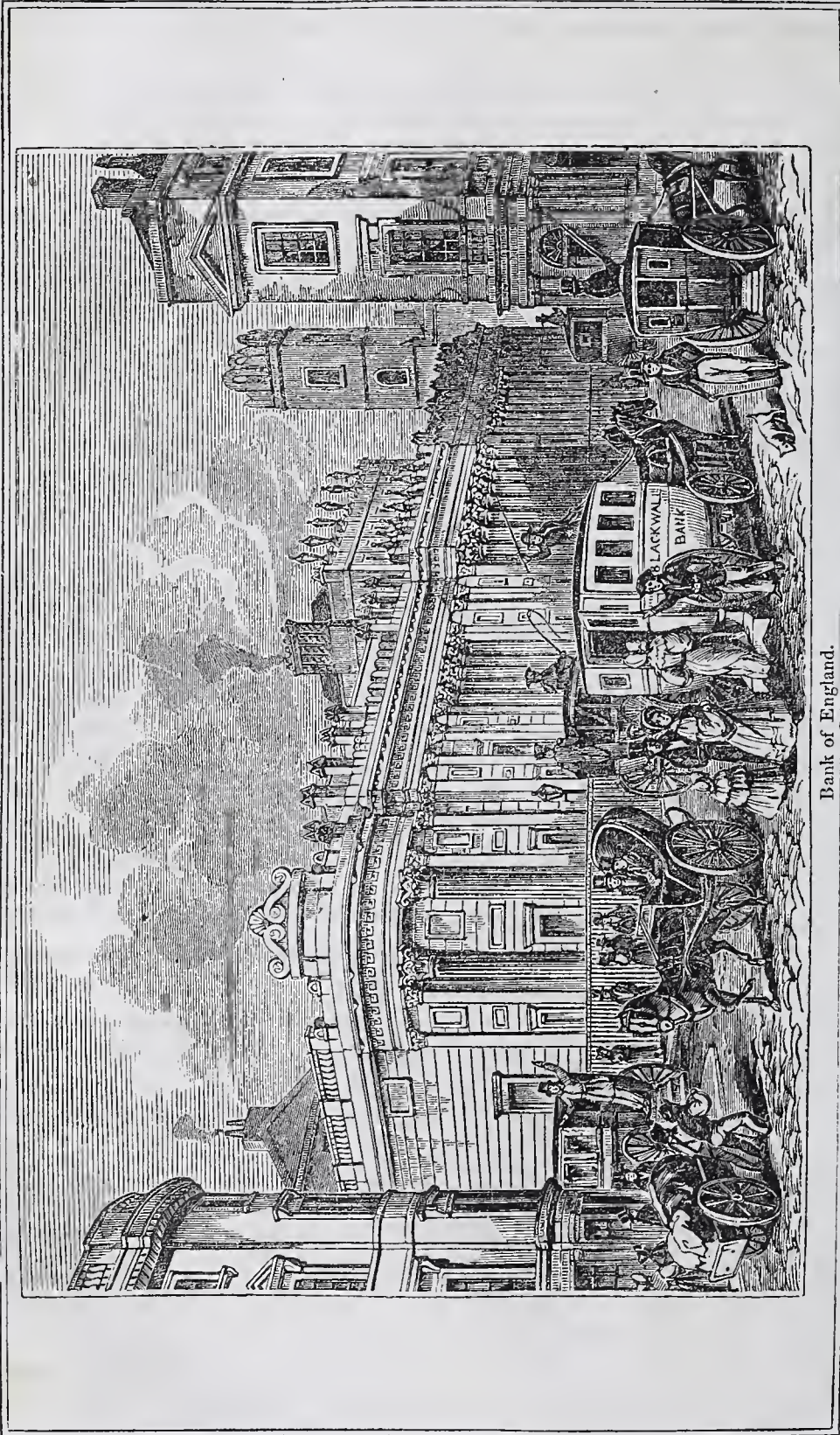
The goldsmiths, however, became dealers in foreign coin, and, in spite of the king's exchanger, took "profit for making such exchange." Their shops were chiefly on the south side of Cheapside, and extended from Old 'Change to Bucklersbury. There were goldsmiths also in Lombard street. Whatever may have been done between individuals in the way of lending and borrowing money (taking interest for the use of money was not allowed by law till 1546), the practice could not be general; for down to the year 1640, the merchants of London were in the habit of lodging their money at the mint, in the Tower of London, as a place of security; the mint was, in fact, their bank. But Charles I., having in that year taken possession of two hundred thousand pounds, which was lying at the mint, destroyed its character as a place of security, and compelled the merchants to keep their money at home. On the breaking out of the civil war, it became a common practice for the apprentices and clerks of the citizens to rob their masters or employers, and run off. This opened the way for the goldsmiths to become bankers. They received money in trust, allowing interest for it, and their receipts, or acknowledgments of the sums intrusted with them, began to pass from hand to hand, just as bank notes do now. They had been in the habit of lending money to the king, on the security of the taxes. This practice they extended to private individuals, on the security either of their credit or of goods; and thus, previous to the establishment of the bank of England, the goldsmiths were the bankers of London, and had laid the foundation of the present metropolitan banking system.

The bank of England—the largest bank in the world—was founded in 1694. Several schemes had been suggested by different individuals for a banking establishment; but at last the project of a Scotch gentleman of the name of Patterson was acted on. The government of King William III. being in great want of money, it was proposed to lend it one million two hundred thousand pounds, on the condition of the lenders receiving a charter of incorporation as a banking company. This was agreed to; the subscription list was filled in ten days, and on the 27th of July, 1694, the bank received its charter of incorporation. By this charter the management of the bank was committed to a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors. The charter was at first limited to eleven years; but it has been renewed at successive periods since. The last renewal was in 1833, when it was extended till 1855, with a proviso that, in 1845, if parliament think fit, and the money owing by government to the bank be paid up, the charter can then be withdrawn. Some alterations were made in the management of the bank, on the renewal of the charter in 1833, and it was then directed that a statement of the affairs of the bank should be sent weekly to the chancellor of the exchequer, and that an average statement of these accounts should be published quarterly.

The amount of money lent by the bank to government gradually increased; in 1833 it was 14,686,804*l*. It has since been reduced to 11,015,100*l*. This large sum is the security given to the public for the solidity of the bank.

The "bank" is certainly an enormous pile of building. It was referred to the late Sir John Soane to say what he thought would be a fair rent for the bank, used as it is for its present purposes. His opinion was, that thirty-five thousand pounds per annum was a fair charge for rent, and five thousand for fixtures, repairs, &c., making forty thousand pounds. In 1832, there were employed at the bank eight hundred and twenty clerks and porters, and thirty-eight printers and engravers; and there were also one hundred and ninety-three pensioners, chiefly superannuated clerks, who received in pensions thirty-one thousand two hundred and forty-three pounds, averaging one hundred and sixty-one pounds to each. In the same year the salaries and pensions amounted to two hundred and eighteen thousand and three pounds, the house expenses to thirty-nine thousand one hundred and eighty-seven pounds; the directors' allowance was eight thousand pounds, and the rent, &c., was set down, as already stated, at forty thousand pounds. The salaries of the officers at the branch banks in the country amounted to twenty-five thousand pounds.

The principal rooms of the bank are freely open to the public during banking hours. Speaking of the pay-hall, the Baron Dupin, in his "Commercial Power of Great Britain," says: "The administration of a French bureau, with all its inaccessibilities, would be startled at the view of this hall!" The largest amount of gold



Bank of England.

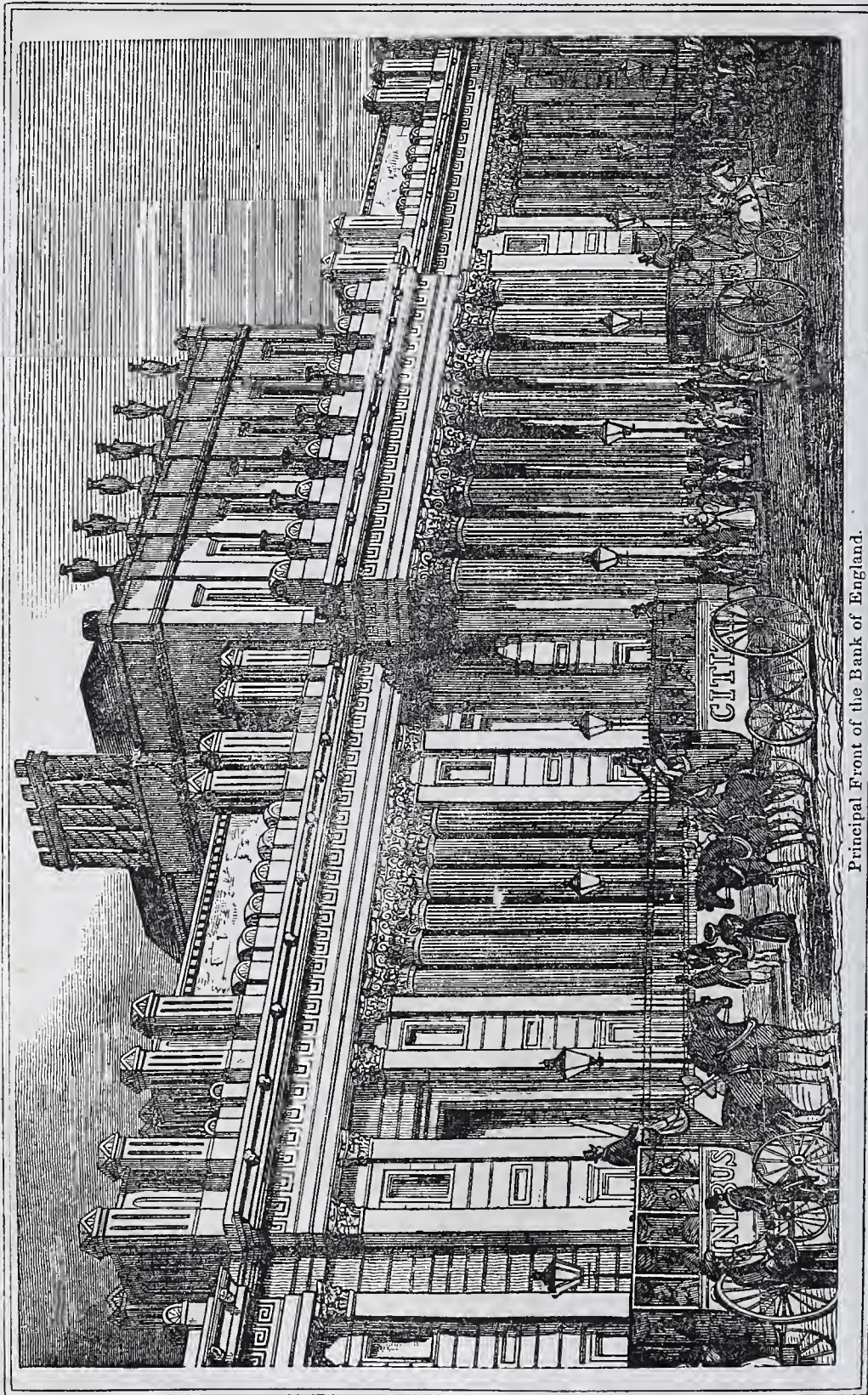
coin that could be paid in the banking hours of one day by twenty-five clerks, if counted by hand to the persons demanding it, is about fifty thousand pounds. On the 14th of May, 1832, three hundred and seven thousand pounds in gold was paid. But the greater part of this sum was paid in the following way : The tellers counted twenty-five sovereigns into one scale and twenty-five into the other, and, if they balanced, continued the operation until there were two hundred in each scale. In this way one thousand pounds can be paid in a few minutes. Bankers and other persons taking large sums in gold from the bank receive them by weight, instead of by the more tedious operation of counting out each sovereign. Mr. Horsley Palmer stated to the parliamentary committee of 1832, that, if gold was paid by weight, in bags, the bank could pay almost any sum in one day.

In addition to the bank of England, there are, in London, at present, seventy-six banking establishments. This includes four or five branches of provincial banks. Among the present banking establishments of London, there are three which were in existence before the bank of England. These are, the Messrs. Child & Co., and the Messrs. Hoares, in Fleet street, and the Messrs. Snow & Co., in the Strand.

About the year 1775 the bankers of the "city" set on foot an economical plan for the purpose of saving both time and money. They established the "Clearing-House," in Lombard street. A great part of the payments which are made to and by bankers in the course of a day, are made on the authority of checks, or bills of exchange. At certain hours in each day, a clerk goes from each banking establishment to the Clearing-House, in Lombard street, taking with him all the drafts which have been paid into his banking house addressed to other bankers. These are placed in drawers, which are allotted in the Clearing-House to each banker. Each clerk gives credit for the drafts which he finds in his own drawer, against the drafts which he has placed in the drawers of other bankers. By this means, the checks drawn on one banker are cancelled by the checks which he holds on others. After four o'clock on each day balances are struck. In 1810, when forty-six banks settled with each other at the Clearing-House, the daily amount of accounts which were thus cancelled varied from five millions of pounds to as high as fifteen millions; while the actual money, or bank-notes, required to pay off odd balances was only from two hundred and fifty thousand pounds to five hundred thousand. Mr. Gilbert, the present manager of the London and Westminster bank, states, in his "History of Banking," published in 1834, that in that year the number of bankers who settled with each other at the Clearing-House was only thirty. The number is probably increased at present. There are two inspectors at the Clearing-House, with salaries, whose business is to superintend and detect errors which may be made by clerks in the hurry of business. The "west-end" bankers are not connected with the Clearing-House.

Lombard street still preserves much of its old character. Stow describes it as "throughout graced with good and lofty buildings, among which are many that surpass those in other streets, and generally is inhabited by goldsmiths, bankers, merchants, and other eminent tradesmen." It was destroyed in the great fire of 1666; but at the present day it is still inhabited by "bankers and other eminent tradesmen." There are sixteen banking establishments in it, besides stock and bill brokers.

Mr. Gilbert states that the first "run" in the history of banking in England occurred in 1667, twenty-seven years before the establishment of the bank of England. The Dutch admiral, De Ruyter, had taken Sheerness, and had sent his vice-admiral, Van Ghent, up the Medway to destroy Chatham. The greatest alarm prevailed in London; and we learn from Pepys's "Diary," that confusion and imbecility prevailed in the councils of the government. The citizens ran to their goldsmiths or bankers to withdraw their money. Various efforts were made to restore confidence. There was another extraordinary "run" in 1745, on the bank of England, when the army of the Pretender was rapidly marching on the metropolis. A public meeting was held, and upward of a thousand merchants signed a declaration expressing their readiness to take bank-notes. At that critical period the bank paid cash in silver, instead of gold, to gain time. A still more remarkable "run," from the consequences which it produced, was in 1797. Fears of foreign invasion prevailed, the government required money, and public confidence was shaken. On Saturday, the 25th of February, 1797, there was only 1,270,000*l.* in coin and bullion remaining in the coffers of the bank. On Monday an order in council was distributed among the crowd assembled at the bank to demand gold, intimating that government had exempted the bank from payments in cash. It was then that notes for so small a sum as one pound



Principal Front of the Bank of England.

were authorized to be issued. The restriction of cash payments continued during the long and expensive war.

The bank made an effort to return to cash payments from 1817 to 1819; but it was not till the first of May, 1821, that payments in specie legally and permanently commenced. Since that time, except for a short period at the end of 1825, bank-of-England notes under five pounds have been withdrawn from circulation, and ultimately all bank-notes under five pounds were prohibited throughout England.

Many of our readers will remember what is termed the "panic" of 1825. The "run" on the bank of England was the greatest that had taken place since 1797. In April or May, 1825, the bank had about ten millions of bullion, and by November it was reduced to one million three hundred thousand pounds. During the "run," gold



Dividend Office, Bank of England.

was handed over when called for, in bags of twenty-five sovereigns each. But at that critical time, says a bank director, "bullion came in, and the mint coined; they worked double tides—in short, they were at work night and day: we were perpetually receiving gold from abroad, and coin from the mint." In one day the bank discounted four thousand two hundred bills. On the 8th of December, 1825, the discounts at the bank were 7,500,000*l.*; on the 15th, they were 11,500,000*l.*; on the 22d, 14,500,000*l.*; and on the 29th, they were 15,000,000*l.* The annual average of commercial paper under discount at the bank was 2,946,500*l.* in 1795; in 1800, it was 6,401,900*l.*; from 1805 to 1816, it varied from 11,000,000*l.* to 20,000,000*l.*; from 1817 to 1826, it varied from about 2,000,000*l.* to 6,000,000*l.*; in 1830, it was only 919,900*l.*, and in 1831, 1,533,600*l.* The annual average of loss by bad debts on discounts has been, from 1795 to 1831, both inclusive, 31,696*l.*

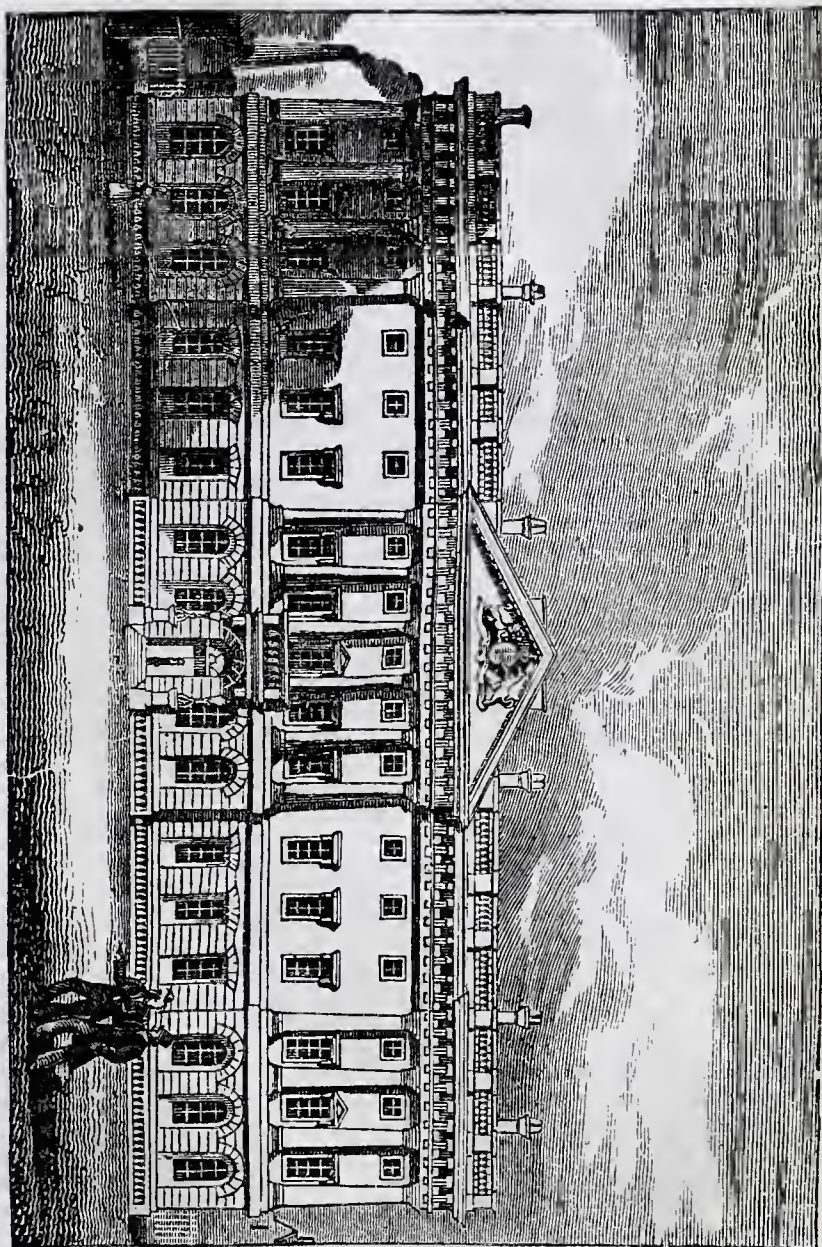
The bank of England acts as the chief agent of the government in the management of the national debt. It receives and registers transfers of stock from one public creditor to another, and makes the quarterly payments of the dividends. For this purpose it employs more than four hundred clerks, porters, and messengers; and, previous to the passing of the act of 1833, received from the public, in payment for this service, the sum of two hundred and forty-eight thousand pounds per annum. Of this amount, one hundred and twenty thousand pounds per annum is now abated in terms of that act.

No bank having more than six partners can issue bills or notes payable on demand in London, or within sixty-five miles of it, during the continuance of the charter of the bank of England. The act of parliament of 1833, which renewed the charter, made bank-of-England notes above five pounds a "legal tender," except at the bank itself, or its branches. Previous to that year, the notes of country bankers were payable in gold: they may now be paid either in gold or bank-of-England notes; and these notes are also just as valid in all payments as gold. Private banks in London, having not more than six partners, may issue notes; but they could not do it profitably in competition with such a powerful and stable body as the bank of England. The profits of the private bankers are derived in a great measure from the discounting of mercantile bills. They do not allow interest for deposits; for the depositors being chiefly persons in business, whose money in such a place as London is not permitted to lie still, the profit from its use would not justify the allowance of interest.

On the northeast side of Tower Hill is situated the building erected some years since from the designs, and under the direction of Mr. Smirke, for conducting the business of the coinage, which was at that time removed from the Tower. "The royal, or national Mint," it is stated by Britton and Braylay, "was formerly an appendage to the Tower, and appears to have been established there in or before the time of Edward I., when, according to Madox, there were no less than thirty furnaces employed. The privilege of coining was frequently granted to corporate and ecclesiastical bodies, and to private noblemen; which occasioning great inconvenience, it was enacted in the time of Queen Elizabeth, that all the provincial mints should be suppressed, and no coinage allowed but at the royal Mint, in the Tower. This law, with the exceptions of two cases of emergency, in the time of Charles the First and William the Third, was observed until about twenty years ago." In consequence, then, of the vast increase of business in this department, arising from the augmented population of the country, and other causes, the government gave orders for the erection of the present edifice. It is a handsome structure, in the Grecian style of architecture, having a centre and wings, and an elevation of three stories. The centre is ornamented with columns (over which is a pediment containing the British arms), and the wings with pilasters. The roof is enclosed by an elegant balustrade. The principal officers of the establishment are provided with houses on each side of the building, which, being of brick, do not harmonize with the principal edifice. The interior is lighted with gas, and every advantage derivable from mechanical contrivance has been here introduced to facilitate the operation of coinage; but no visitor is admitted to inspect the works without a special order from the master of the Mint.

"England," said the late Mr. Rothschild, in 1832, "is, in general, the bank for the whole world—I mean, that all transactions in India—in China—in Germany—in Russia—and in the whole world—are all guided here and settled through this country."

The centre of operations—the heart, as it were—of this "bank for the whole



Front of the Mint, from Tower Hill.

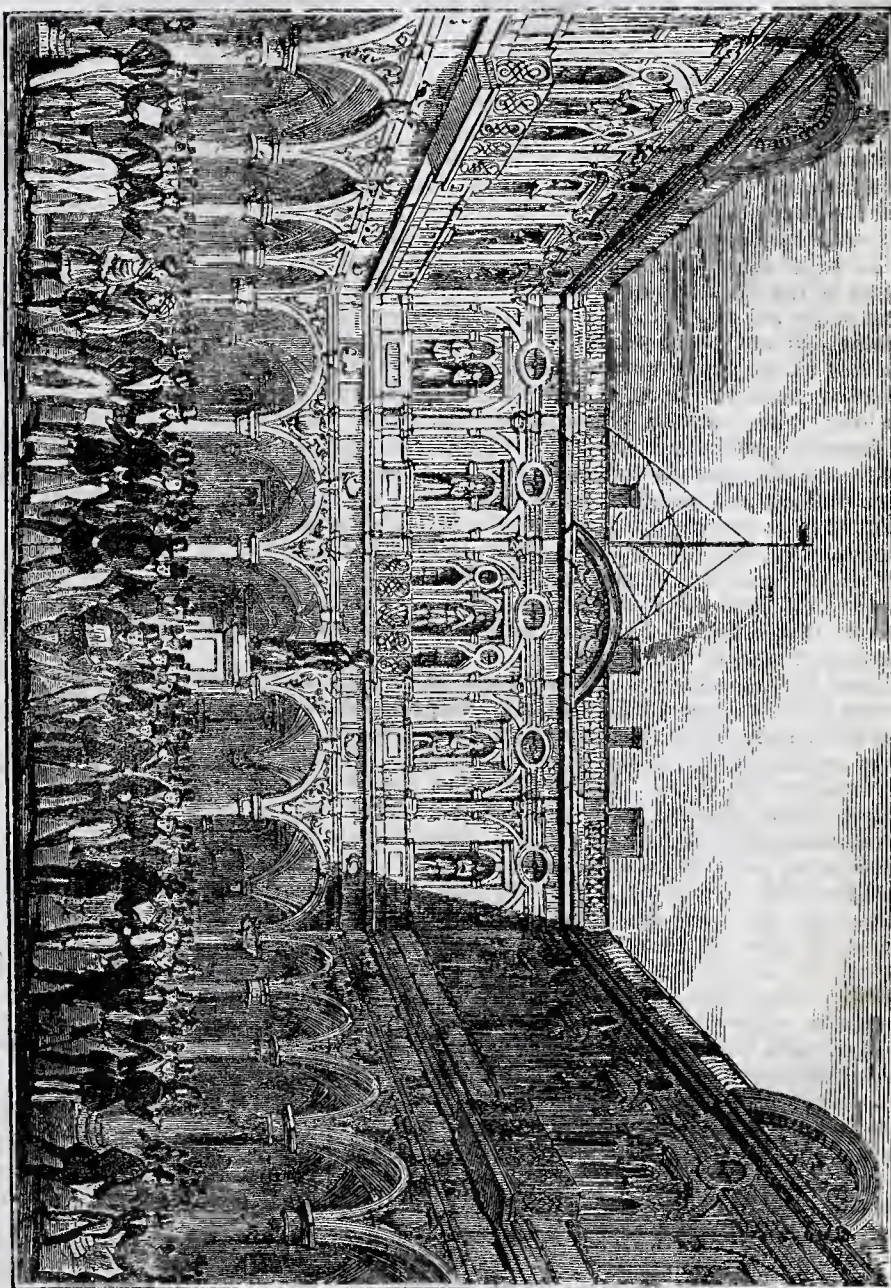
world," is the money-market of London. And as with the idea of a market we generally associate that of a market-place, so, in speaking of the London money-market, we naturally think of that particular locality where the greater part of its transactions are carried on—the bank, the royal exchange, the stock exchange (which lie within a few paces of each other), and the surrounding neighborhood. This will include the banking-houses of Lombard street, Lothbury, and the Poultry (the continuation of Cheapside from Bucklersbury and the old Jewry to Cornhill, is termed the "Poultry"); the counting-houses of the bullion, bill, and discount brokers, of the stock and share brokers, and the places of business of those establishments where wealthy individuals, under the general title of "merchants," without any other specific designation, carry on many of those operations which come more immediately within the sphere of the money-market.

The royal exchange lies between Cornhill and Threadneedle street, its principal front being toward Cornhill. Threadneedle street, which is narrow, separates it from the eastern or upper end of the bank. Bartholomew Lane (one of the four streets which isolate the bank) extends from the Threadneedle street front of the Royal exchange to the street which at one end is termed Lothbury, and at the other Throgmorton street. The one side of Bartholomew Lane is formed by the eastern front of the bank, the other by a connected range of buildings, a part of which is a church, and part is occupied chiefly by stockholders. In about the centre of this range is Capel court, where is the principal entrance to the stock exchange: there are other entrances by courtways or passages from Throgmorton street. At the bottom of Bartholomew Lane, and the corner of Throgmorton street, is a handsome building termed the Auction Mart, erected about thirty-six years ago, as a kind of central establishment for the sale of estates, annuities, shares, &c., by public auction.

Very great improvements have recently been effected in this neighborhood, and more are in progress. Two fine streets, in particular, have been opened, and their frontages are occupied by handsome ranges of buildings. Still, the stranger will find much to convince him that trade and commerce here have been more chary of space than to spend it on spacious streets. Let him try to thread some of those narrow passages, which, at first sight, might appear to him to lead only to some private house or private establishment: he will be surprised to find them crowded thoroughfares, communicating with one narrow street or another. Here, in these seemingly out-of-the-way places, are numerous shops, whose occupants are in possession of a snug and money-making trade—taverns and coffeehouses with steady frequenters—places of business where much may be transacted in the brief hours of a business-day. Narrow passages, communicating with streets, are numerous in all the older parts of London; but those which lead from Threadneedle street, Throgmorton street, Cornhill, &c., &c., are more especially calculated to excite surprise in a stranger, from the extreme narrowness of some of them, and their seeming obscurity, compared with the crowds passing through, and the business which is transacted in them.

There are three hundred and thirty-four stockbroking establishments (many of them firms with two or more partners) in London, whose places of business are in Threadneedle street, Bartholomew Lane, at the Royal exchange, in Lothbury and Throgmorton street, Cornhill, and Lombard street. To these we must add thirty-four bullion, bill, and discount brokers, about two hundred and forty ship and insurance brokers, and about one thousand "merchants," some of whom deal in bullion and bills to a considerable extent, whose places of business are all within five and ten minutes' walk of the bank and Royal exchange. And this is, without reckoning the bankers, the general and commercial agents, the colonial, cotton, silk, and wool brokers, the corn and coal merchants, the solicitors and notaries, the tradesmen and shopkeepers, all within the same neighborhood, as well as the offices of great insurance companies, railway companies, steampacket companies, &c.

The Royal exchange was erected originally by Sir Thomas Gresham, the corporation of the city having given the ground on which to build it. The idea of the building, and its name, were imported from the continent; it was termed the *Börse*, or Bourse. But two years after its erection, Queen Elizabeth having visited it in great state, cause it to be proclaimed by sound of trumpet, that its name should be "the Royal exchange." Exactly a century after the erection of this building it was destroyed in the great fire. The present building was erected immediately afterward, at



The Royal Exchange.

an expense of nearly sixty thousand pounds; a few years ago, it underwent a very substantial repair.

The ground floors of the Royal exchange are occupied by stockbrokers, insurance brokers, stationers, newsvenders, music-sellers, opticians, tobacconists, &c., their shops fronting the streets. On entering the gateway, either from Cornhill or Threadneedle street, we arrive in a handsome quadrangle, in the centre of which is a statue of Charles II. There are statues of the kings of England in niches round the court, above the paved colonnade or piazza. This piazza affords a shelter and promenade to the merchants who meet here to transact business. From the piazza there are staircases which lead to the upper part of the Royal exchange, over the shops. Here a gallery extends round the quadrangle, leading to offices occupied by merchants, underwriters, the Royal exchange assurance office, &c., and by the society of underwriters at Lloyd's subscription coffeehouse. There are two suites of rooms in this establishment; one open to the public, the other reserved for the subscribers. In order to become a subscriber the candidate must be proposed by six members, and afterward accepted by the managing committee. "The establishment of insurances at Lloyd's," says the Baron Dupin, "has rendered signal services both to the commerce of the British empire and to that of other states. The society has agents in most of the principal ports of all parts of the world; it makes public the events, both commercial and maritime, which it learns through their means: these accounts are received by the public with a confidence which nothing for more than a century has tended to destroy." "At Lloyd's," says Von Raumer, "close to the dial which tells the hour, is one still more interesting here, which tells the direction of the wind, and is connected with the weathercock on the roof. Intelligence of the arrivals and departures of ships, of the existence and fate of vessels in all parts of the world; reports from consuls and commissioners resident in every foreign town, newspapers and gazettes from every country are here to be found, arranged in such perfect and convenient order, that the entire actual state of the commercial world may be seen in a few minutes, and any of the countless threads that converge to this centre may be followed out with more or less minuteness. The whole earth, or the whole commercial machinery of the earth, appeared to me to be placed in the hands of the directors of Lloyd's coffeehouse."

Equal in importance to the insurances is the business transacted on the Royal exchange in bills of exchange and in the importation and exportation of bullion—*i. e.*, gold and silver, either in coin or in any other form. The late Mr. Rothschild was in the ordinary habit, when times were quiet, of buying, week by week, from eighty thousand pounds to one hundred thousand pounds worth of bills drawn for goods shipped from England. He gave his testimony that, in general, business on the Royal exchange was done very fairly. Dealers in bills purchase them either to get a commission, or in return for goods imported. Thus bills drawn by the trading and manufacturing towns, as Liverpool, Manchester, &c., and which come to every banker and merchant in London, are bought, and sent abroad. Against these, the dealers in bills buy on the continent bills drawn on England for commodities imported. If there be not a sufficient quantity of foreign bills to meet British bills—that is, if they have sent out more goods than have been imported, and thus put the foreign merchants in their debt, then the dealers, not being able to get bills, must bring in gold, from Paris, from Hamburgh, or from wherever it is requisite. But if the reverse is the case, if British merchants are in debt to foreign merchants, then the deficiency of bills must be made up by drawing gold from the bank to send abroad. This is the state of things which is watched by the bullion and bill brokers, that they may make a profit either by buying bills, or importing and exporting bullion. When commodities are cheap in England, it generally turns the exchanges in their favor, as they then get a greater number of customers than usual, who buy from Britain what at the time they can not get so cheap elsewhere.

The national debt of Great Britain amounts at present to between 700,000,000*l.* and 800,000,000*l.*, on which an annual interest of 28,000,000*l.* is paid to the creditors. There are probably two millions or three millions of people directly concerned in the receipt of this annual interest—for though the debt stands in the names of only about two hundred and eighty thousand individuals, many of these are merely trustees, directors, or managers, acting for societies, associations, &c., numbers of whom have what is called "money in the funds"—*i. e.*, a claim on government for money lent. The creditors can not demand their money back, for the original condition by which

the money was borrowed, and the stock created, does not provide for paying off the principal; but the annual interest must be paid. A certain proportion of the debt exists in the form of *terminable* annuities—that is, annuities terminating at a given time. Another portion is called the floating or unfunded debt, as it exists in the shape of exchequer bills—a kind of paper money issued by government. But by far the largest portion of the debt is funded or permanent. In order to accommodate the creditors, government enables them to sell their claims to whoever will buy them—for more than the full amount if they can get it, or for less if they can not help it. For this purpose an establishment is kept up at the bank of England called the transfer office. When a creditor sells his claim to any other person, the transaction is called a “transfer of stock,” because the right to receive the annual interest is transferred from one person to another. Transfers of stock are almost all effected through the agency of stock brokers, who charge one eighth per cent., or 2s. 6d. for every 100*l.* transferred.

All the more respectable of the stock brokers are members of the stock exchange in Capel court, Bartholomew Lane, into which they must be elected by ballot. No person is allowed to enter or transact business in this building but members. When a bargain has been concluded, the parties step over to the transfer office at the bank, where certain simple forms are gone through, the transfer clerks verifying and ratifying the transaction. There are certain days in the week allotted to each description of stock, on which only transfers can be made.

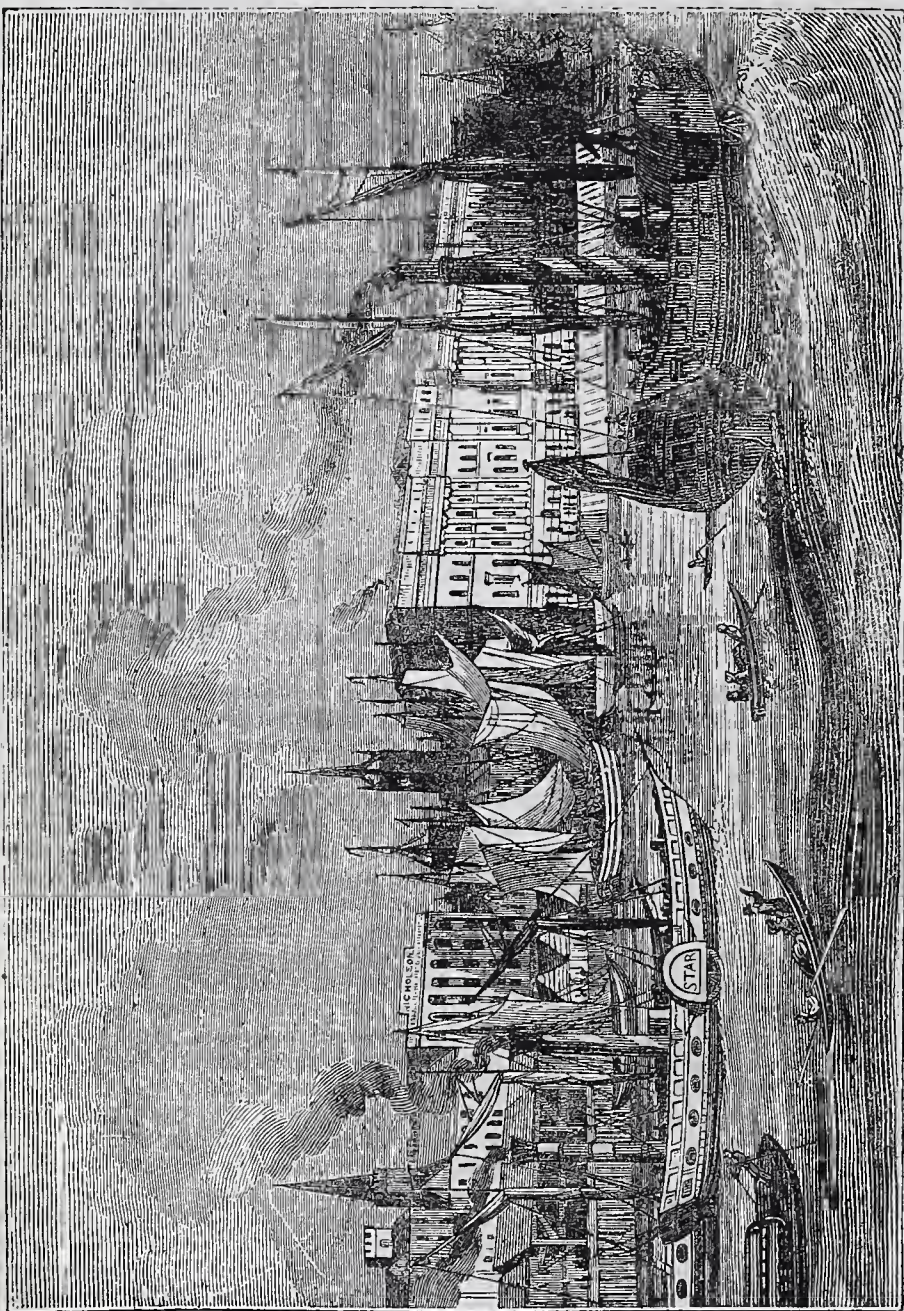
CHAPTER XXXI.

COMMERCE—THE RIVER AND PORT, AND THE DOCKS.

FROM the sea up to within a few miles of London, the banks of the Thames present but little of picturesque scenery. The river flows through a flat marshy level, which, especially on the Essex side, has a monotonous aspect. A range of hills, of small elevations, runs from Gravesend to Greenwich, at a varying distance from the bank, and this preserves the scenery from being altogether tame and uninteresting. But it is the river itself which is the great source of interest—the consideration of what it has been and of what it is. It has been a commercial highway for these eighteen hundred years past—it is at present the most important one in the world!

On arriving off Gravesend, which is opposite Tilbury fort, and twenty-five miles from London, we begin to remark, more particularly, the great traffic on the Thames. Hence, upward, vessels are lying at anchor here and there in the stream, or are moving by the aid of the wind; some great and heavy-laden ship is being towed up or down; and steamers, large and small, are every now and then rushing past. On reaching and passing Woolwich, the interest rapidly increases. In a short time we are at the entrance of what is legally the port of London (that is, the space comprehended in the harbor regulations), which extends from London bridge down to Bugsby's Hole, immediately below Blackwall, a distance of nearly six miles and a half. The actual port, or harbor, known under the names of the Lower and Upper pools, is only about four miles in length. Turning round by Blackwall, with its taverns whose windows overhang the water, Greenwich opens distinctly on the view, with its noble and palace-like hospital, and its back-ground of park and woody hill, crowned by the observatory. Opposite Greenwich and Deptford is the marshy peninsula of the Isle of Dogs, nearly round which the river makes a great sweep, from north to south, and from south to north. There is one of the harbor-masters in his boat; and that flag, floating from the flag-staff over the harbor-master's office at Greenwich, is the “collier's detention flag,” warning the colliers lying moored in the river that there is yet no room for them in the lower pool, and that they must “bide their time.” When the flag is hauled down, the first in turn move upward; and as soon as the allotted spaces are occupied the flag is hauled up again.

We are now in Limehouse Reach, and entering the Lower pool. In the distance



The Customhouse.

are the numerous spires of London, and the dome of St. Paul's—before us a “forest of masts,” the density of which, at particular seasons of the year, is truly astonishing to the “inland” man who looks on such a scene for the first time.

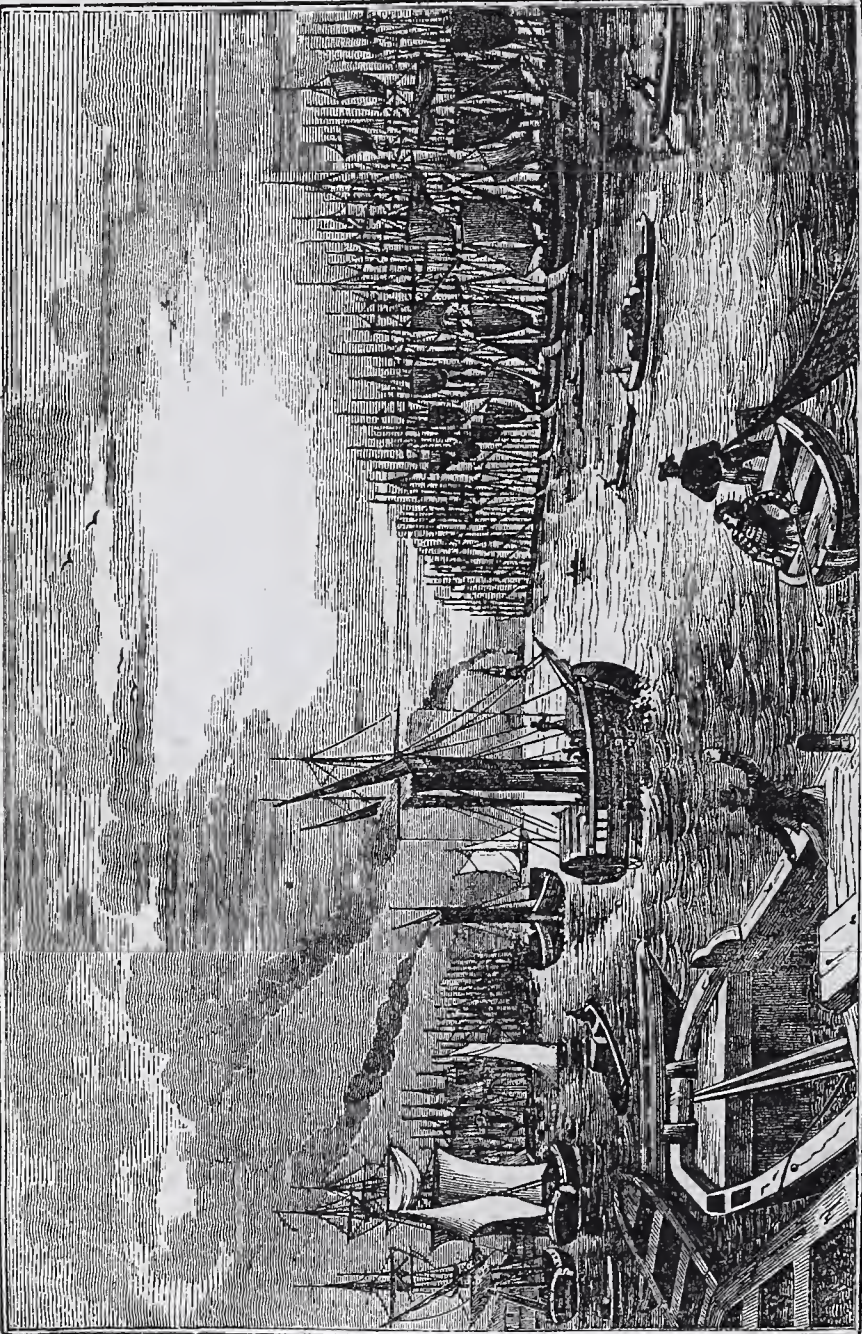
We will not tarry a long time at the entrance of the Upper pool. It begins from about over the spot where the Thames tunnel is excavated—or rather, we should say, it ends there, its commencement being at London bridge. On our right hand going up—the Middlesex side—is Wapping; on the left or Surrey side, Rotherhithe. Now we are passing the entrances of the London docks, and the St. Katherine's docks are marked out by its lofty warehouses; adjoining it is the “time-worn” Tower; a few minutes more and we are off the customhouse, and may be landed on its quay—the only quay in the port of London on which the public can walk, with the exception of a small one in front of the Tower.

The collection of the “king's toll” or customs—which used to be a main dependence of royalty—was managed very bunglingly in former times. The “customers,” as the collectors of customs are termed in old acts of parliament, were in the habit of cheating both king and merchant; the one, by giving false certificates of the duty being paid to such merchants as they chose to favor, and the other by sometimes giving no discharges or receipts at all, or at least until they had compelled a second payment of the same duty. The 11 Henry VI., cap. 15, 16, is directed against these practices. A member of the Grocer's company, who was also sheriff of London, named John Churchman, gets the credit of having first got up the convenience of a custom-house at the port of London—this was toward the end of the fourteenth century. Churchman's customhouse was only for the “troynage” or weighing of wools—long after its erection the various customs were collected at different parts of the city in an irregular manner. The commencement of the present system may be dated from Elizabeth's reign, when a new and more capacious customhouse was built, which was burned in the great fire of 1666. Sir Christopher Wren built another, which was also burned in 1718, and its successor shared a like fate in 1814, though not before it had been determined to pull it down as inconvenient, and erect a new one in its stead. The present structure lies a little westward of the site of the former one, nearer London bridge. The first stone of it was laid in 1813, before the fire happened, which consumed the previous house.

The Upper pool is a great resort of the steamboats connected with London; out of the entire number plying, there were, in 1836, no less than ninety making their arrivals and departures to and from it; seventy coasters, and twenty foreign. But here is one of what are termed the small steamers coming up; she plies between Woolwich and Hungerford market, and will pass under the bridge. Although this is quite a common thing now-a-days, there is still inducement enough for the young folks, ay, and some of the old folks too, to run from one side of the bridge to the other, to watch the vessel emerging from under the arch, and receive its salute of smoke. In going up to Hungerford market, she passes under London, Southwark, Blackfriars, and Waterloo bridges.

The commerce of the port of London, which had been gradually increasing during the first half of the eighteenth century, outgrew in the second half the existing accommodation of the harbor. The “legal quays”—quays at which vessels were allowed to land their cargoes, and at which customhouse officers were stationed—continued the same in number and extent as in the reign of Queen Elizabeth; and though to these were added a number of “sufferance wharves,” they were altogether totally inadequate to the wants of the shipping. The port, at particular seasons, was often nearly blocked up by fleets of merchantmen, many of them lying at anchor in the middle of the stream, and discharging their cargoes into lighters and barges. The only dock at that time was a small basin on the south side of the river, called Greenland basin (since enlarged, and the name altered into the Commercial docks), which was used only by a few vessels in the Greenland fishery. The warehouse accommodation, too, at the legal quays and wharves, was quite insufficient for the purposes of a trade and commerce, expanded with extraordinary and almost unexampled rapidity.

Along with this want of accommodation in the harbor, there existed a system of pillage and depredation, which, though it was in full operation only forty years ago, we at the present day can scarcely think credible. The main body of depredators was composed of the lightermen, watermen, and laborers; but in not a few instances their practices were winked at and shared in by some of the revenue officers, num-



The Upper Pool.

bers of the crews, and sometimes too by the mates and even the captains of vessels. These were backed by a host of receivers, who, either as publicans or as keepers of shops for the sale of marine stores, metal, and rags, carried on an extensive business in stolen property.

The proprietor of a cargo of oil from the British colonies in America, which was discharging into lighters in the river, was annoyed by unaccountable deficiencies, and determined to watch and discover the way in which his property was abstracted. The lightermen, coming up with a portion of the cargo, wilfully contrived to lose the tide, and took the opportunity of turning all the casks with their bungs downward. The proprietor at the quay caused a part of the ceiling of the lighter to be taken up, and filled fifteen casks with oil taken out of the hold, much to the provocation of the lightermen, who vehemently affirmed that all leakage was nothing but their fair and honest perquisites.

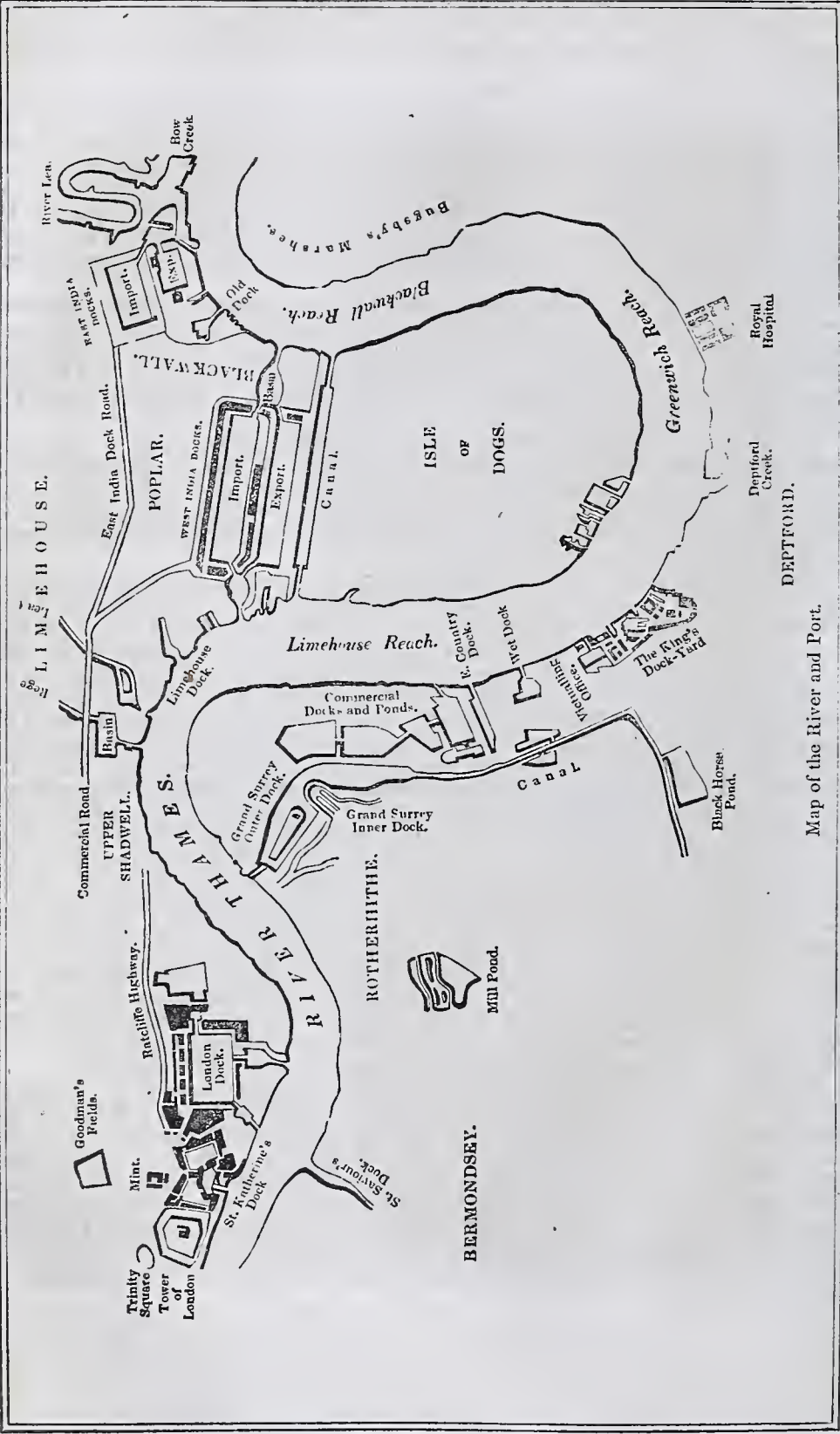
The captain of a ship, who insisted on searching a gang of lumpers—laborers employed in discharging cargoes—before they left the deck of his vessel, was allowed to do so. While engaged in this, a barrel of sugar, his private property, which stood in the cabin, was emptied in a few minutes into bags, and handed through the window into a waterman's boat, and carried clear off almost before his face.

In the month of October, 1798, a lighter was robbed of five casks of American ashes, of the value of 50*l*. The contents were carried in bags to the house of an opulent receiver, who sat up two different nights for the purpose. The thieves were remunerated by receiving about a fourth of the value, besides being regaled with a supper and liquor, and the watchman received half-a-crown for his civility in taking no notice of the transaction!

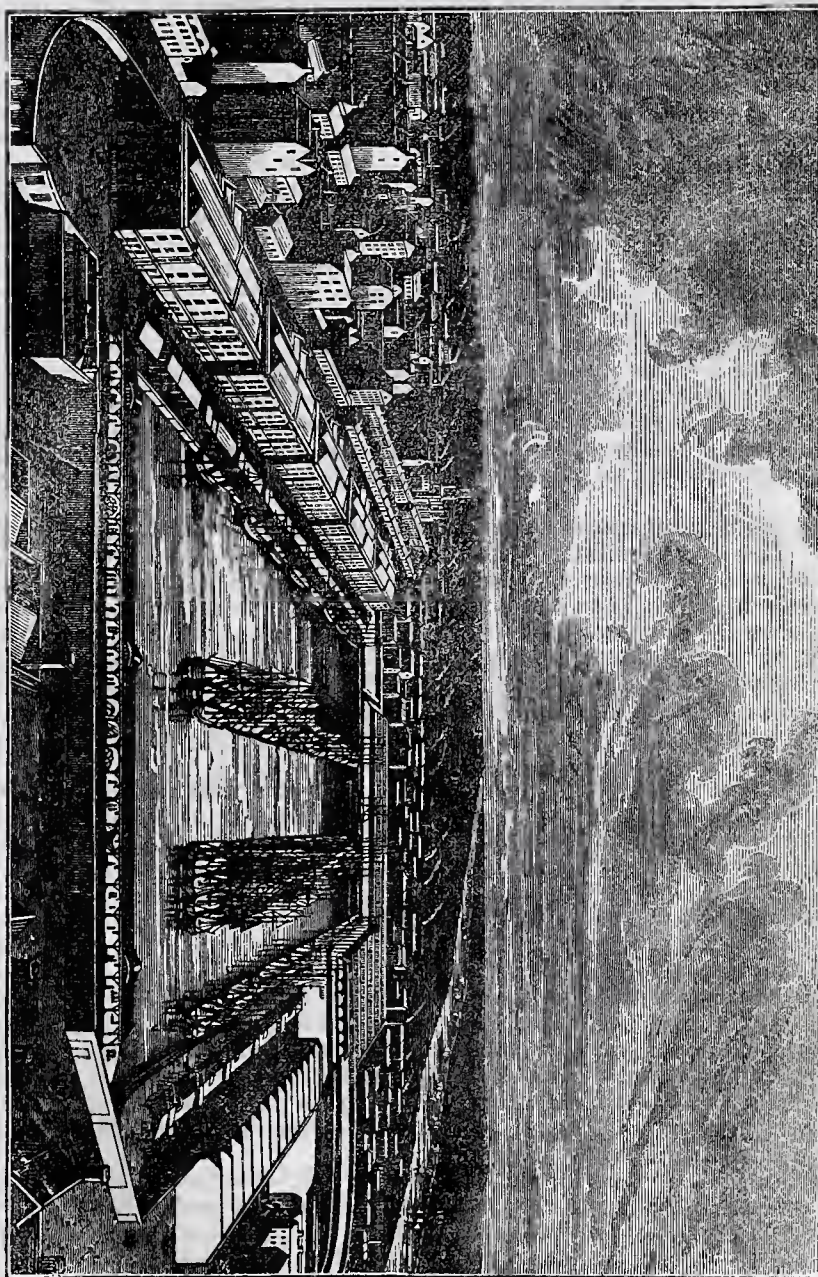
These are but specimens of the way in which the commerce of London suffered, and which, along with the want of accommodation, led to the establishment of the Thames police and of the docks. Yet it is astonishing to remark how long the annoyances were borne before remedies were provided. The merchants of London held meetings about the matter in 1793; and parliament took the subject up in 1796, by instituting a formal inquiry. Nothing, however, was done as to the establishment of docks till 1799, partly owing to dissensions among the merchants as to the proper mode of carrying out the plans, and partly to the great opposition which was made by wharfingers and others interested in keeping the shipping wholly in the river. The West India merchants, who were the greatest sufferers from pillage, determined on having docks for their own trade; and were powerful enough to get their bill for the construction of the West India docks passed in 1799, in which was a compulsory clause compelling for a certain period, all West India vessels to go into the docks. In the following year 1800, the other merchants got the bill passed for the establishment of the London docks (or rather dock, for the smaller dock was not made for many years afterward), and in it, also, was a compulsory clause, requiring, for a certain period, all vessels laden with certain kinds of cargoes—wine, brandy, &c.—to enter. The bill for making the East India docks was passed in 1803. Nothing further was done in the way of establishing wet docks, with the exception of converting the Greenland basin into the Commercial docks, until 1827, when the St. Katherine's docks were begun, which were opened toward the end of 1828, their construction having been carried on with extraordinary rapidity.

Some idea of the excitement produced by the supposed diversion of the shipping from the river into docks may be obtained from the fact, that the sum demanded as compensation (without reckoning the purchasing of land and houses, which cost the London dock proprietors especially an enormous sum) was nearly 4,000,000*l*. sterling. But of this only 677,382*l*. was paid, all the rest being disallowed. The government bought the legal quays for 486,087*l*., and granted, as compensation to persons having vested interests in the "mooring-chains" of the harbor, a sum of 138,791*l*. The amount paid out of the consolidated fund, by virtue of the several acts for improving the port of London, and for constructing docks, was, including the purchase of the legal quays, 1,681,685*l*.

We may commence our inspection of the docks with those last constructed and nearest to London—the St. Katherine's. For many years great jealousy and precaution were exercised at the other docks in the admission of strangers and visitors, who were required to produce tickets, or orders for admission from a director at the gates. But all this is now done away; the gates of the different docks are freely



Map of the River and Port.



The London Docks.

open during working hours to the passing stranger, the vigilance of the gate-keepers, and of the dock-constables or watchmen, being considered sufficient for the protection of the varied and valuable property within.

Although the different docks have each their characteristics, they may be described generally as basins for the reception of shipping, surrounded by warehouses and enclosed by walls. The St. Katherine's docks lie immediately below the tower of London. The appearance of this establishment differs in many respects from that of the other docks. Beauty has been sacrificed to utility. Here are no spacious quays, nor long ranges of warehouses; and though the area enclosed is twenty-four acres, the place has a look of being crowded and confined. But the warehouses make up in height and depth what they want in length. They are six stories high, and are massive and capacious; the vaults below are extensive depositories. The ground-floors of the warehouses toward the docks are eighteen feet high, open, and supported by pillars; a contrivance by which labor and space are saved, for vessels in the docks can come close to the warehouses, and discharge their cargoes into them, without the necessity of the goods being laid down on a quay in their transit. The docks, of which there are two, with an entrance basin, are capable of containing from 150 to 160 ships, besides craft. The lock leading from the river is 195 feet long and 45 feet broad, and is crossed by a swing bridge 23 feet wide. The depth of water at spring tides is 28 feet in the lock, and thus ships of six hundred and eight hundred tons can come up the river with a certainty of admission into the docks. Altogether, though the St. Katherine's docks are deficient in extent or spaciousness, as compared with the others, the solidity of the buildings, the completeness and ingenuity of the mechanical apparatus and arrangements, and the bustle and activity within, are calculated to make a strong impression on the visitor's mind.

From the St. Katherine's we can enter, crossing Nightingale lane, the London docks. This is a magnificent establishment; it covers upward of one hundred acres of ground, and cost in its construction about three millions of pounds sterling. There is cellerage here for nearly sixty thousand pipes of wines, and the tobacco warehouses can hold twenty-four thousand hogsheads. The two docks, the larger and the smaller, can accommodate eight hundred ships. From the extent of the place, and the capacity of its warehouses (which are inferior in height and massive ponderousness to those of the St. Katherine's, though imposing from their range), there is less of bustle and seeming confusion than in the docks which we had previously inspected.

From the London to the West-India docks there is a walk of about a mile and a half. If the extent of the London docks surprised us, that of the West-India docks will astonish still more. The entire ground occupied by them is about two hundred and ninety-five acres! This includes the canal across the isle of Dogs, made by the corporation of the city of London at the same time that the West-India docks were constructing; the object of it was to enable vessels to avoid the circuit of the river, those availing themselves of it being required to pay a toll. But the speculation proved unsuccessful, and the canal was sold to the West-India dock company, who have turned it into a dock for wood-laden vessels. There have been at one time in these docks, on the quays, under the sheds, and in the warehouses, as much as twenty millions of pounds worth of colonial produce—sugar, coffee, rum and wine, mahogany, dyewoods, &c., &c. The West-India docks have been an exceedingly successful speculation—the shareholders receiving for many years an annual dividend of ten per cent., while, at the same time, a large sum was accumulating as a reserve fund. Competition has lowered the rate of profit.

The East-India docks, at Blackwall, though inferior in extent to the London and the West-India, are yet sufficiently capacious. They are surrounded by lofty walls. Both the West-India and the East-India docks have two basins, termed import and export docks—their names denote their uses. "Nothing," says Baron Dupin, "appears more simple than the idea of forming separate docks for the loading and unloading of importations and exportations; yet, infinite as the advantages which it affords are, in preventing confusion and the frauds which it naturally produces, the English constructed docks for more than a century before this idea struck them." The East-India import dock has a superficies of nineteen acres, the export ten, and the basin three: having to receive large vessels, they were constructed so as to have never less than twenty-three feet of water.

The number of individuals who pour out of the docks when the hours of closing them have arrived is not a little remarkable. Revenue officers, clerks, warehouse-keepers, engineers, coopers, and laborers, of every grade, seem actually to block up the way. There may be about, on an average, five thousand employed in the St Katherine's, London, and the West and East India docks.

CHAPTER XXXII.

TRADE.—LUDGATE STREET, AND THE SHOPS OF THE "CITY."—REGENT STREET, AND THE SHOPS OF THE "WEST END."

If we take the number of "establishments"—that is, of counting-houses, warehouses, chambers, shops, workshops, and other places in London, where individuals or companies carry on business—at sixty thousand, we can hardly calculate the number of the working population employed in them at less than one million. Very few persons can carry on business in a counting-house or shop without the assistance of an adult or a youth: the humblest milliner or straw-hat-maker has in general one or two apprentices; some single shops give out work to twenty, forty, or eighty individuals—in many workshops there are hundreds employed. Fifteen persons to each establishment would make nine hundred thousand; we are surely, therefore, not over the mark in assuming the number of the working population of London at one million, including old and young, male and female, but excluding domestic servants. If the earnings and spendings of this million are, on an average, twenty shillings each weekly, it will amount to a greater sum annually than the present annual revenue of Great Britain.

If one half of the entire number of establishments consists of shops—which allows about three shops to each street in London—and each shop, in its retail business, draws on an average eight pounds daily (some small shops can get on by drawing from one to two pounds a day, others must draw twenty, thirty, or forty pounds), we have about two hundred and fifty thousand pounds, or about seventy-two millions of pounds yearly, circulating in the retail trade of London: two hundred and fifty thousand pounds employed daily in the retail trade of London, is two shillings and sixpence to each of the two millions of population.

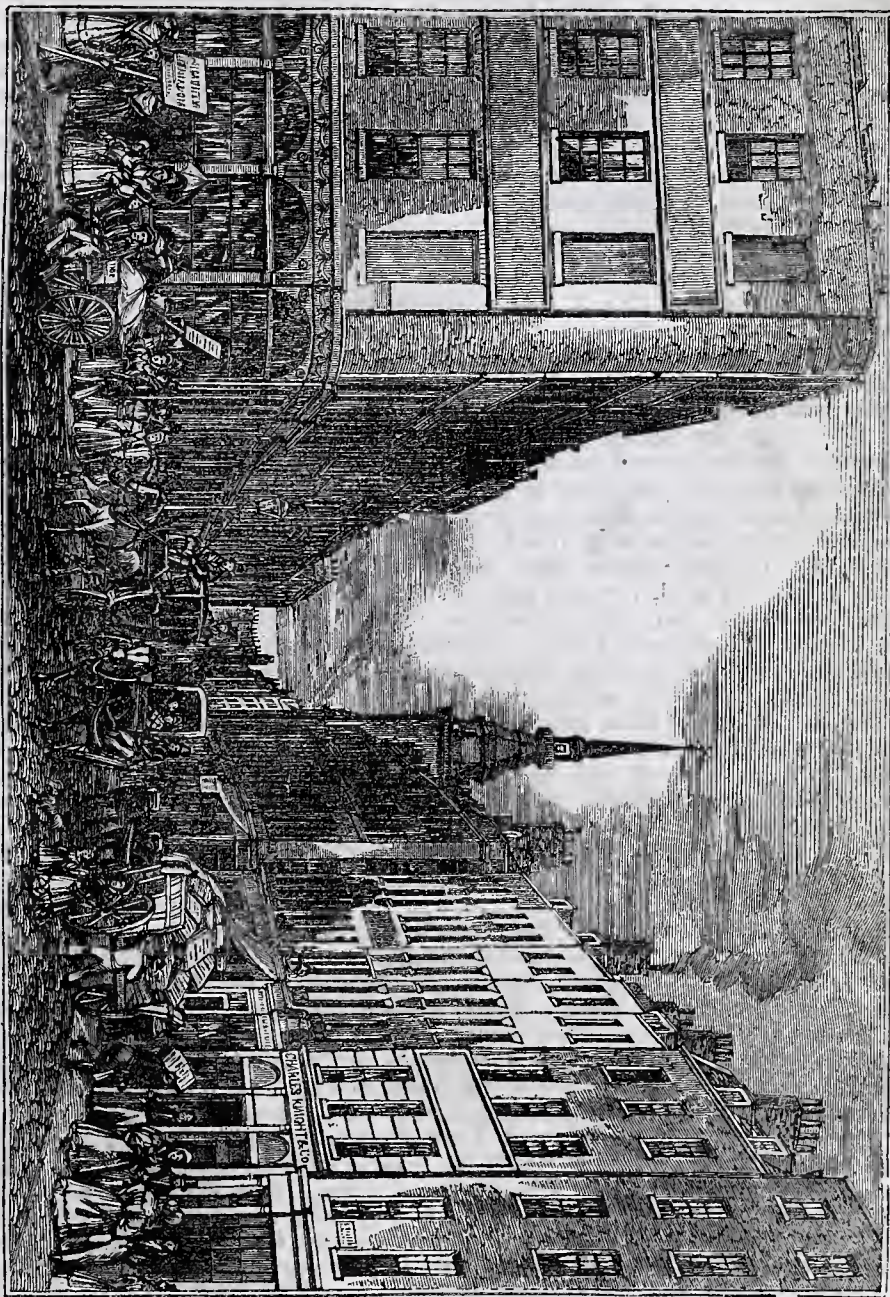
About one half of the entire number of London establishments range under the three general heads of food, clothing, and habitation. There are about eight thousand five hundred engaged in the supply of food, five thousand in liquors, eight thousand in clothing, from eight hundred to one thousand in coal, three thousand in the building, sale, and letting of houses, and four thousand five hundred in the supply of household furniture and decorations of every kind. By classing food and liquor establishments together, we have nearly fourteen thousand under the head of food, and only eight thousand under clothing; but the subdivisions of employment under clothing, as might naturally be expected, are greater than those under food. The other half of the total number of London establishments comprehends those engaged in the general departments of commerce, the dealers in the materials of intelligence and education, and of science and art, the workers in the finer metals, the practisers in law and medicine, and the gratifiers of wants and wishes connected with recreation and amusement.

The old habit or custom, which is probably coeval with the existence of cities, of particular trades or professions settling down in particular streets or districts, and which thenceforward become, by positive or tacit consent, appropriated to them, is in a great degree disappearing from London. The fishmonger and the silk mercer, the confectioner and the butcher, the tallow-chandler and the tailor, the chinaman and the cheesemonger, occupy alternate shops. Some relics still remain of the old habit. Paternoster Row is still much occupied by booksellers (see engraving p. 400) and Lombard street by bankers; Long Acre by coachmakers, and Cranbourne alley by straw-hat-makers; Holywell street and Monmouth street uphold their old repu-



Paternoster Row.

tation of being mainly occupied by those who sell old clothes for new ; and Brokers' alley is crowded by dealers in second-hand furniture. Other streets and places have distinct characteristics, though occupied by shops of various kinds. There are several spots which have become, by a kind of prescription, markets for the working population ; and there provisions can be bought much cheaper, though it may be a little coarser, than in other places. Two of these spots are more especially worthy of notice—a particular part of Tottenham Court road, at the west end, and a street called, rather singularly, the New Cut (it is a cut of some years' existence), on the Surrey side of the water, in Lambeth. The latter is worth a visit on a Saturday evening, during the fall of the year particularly. The street is occupied by butchers, ba-



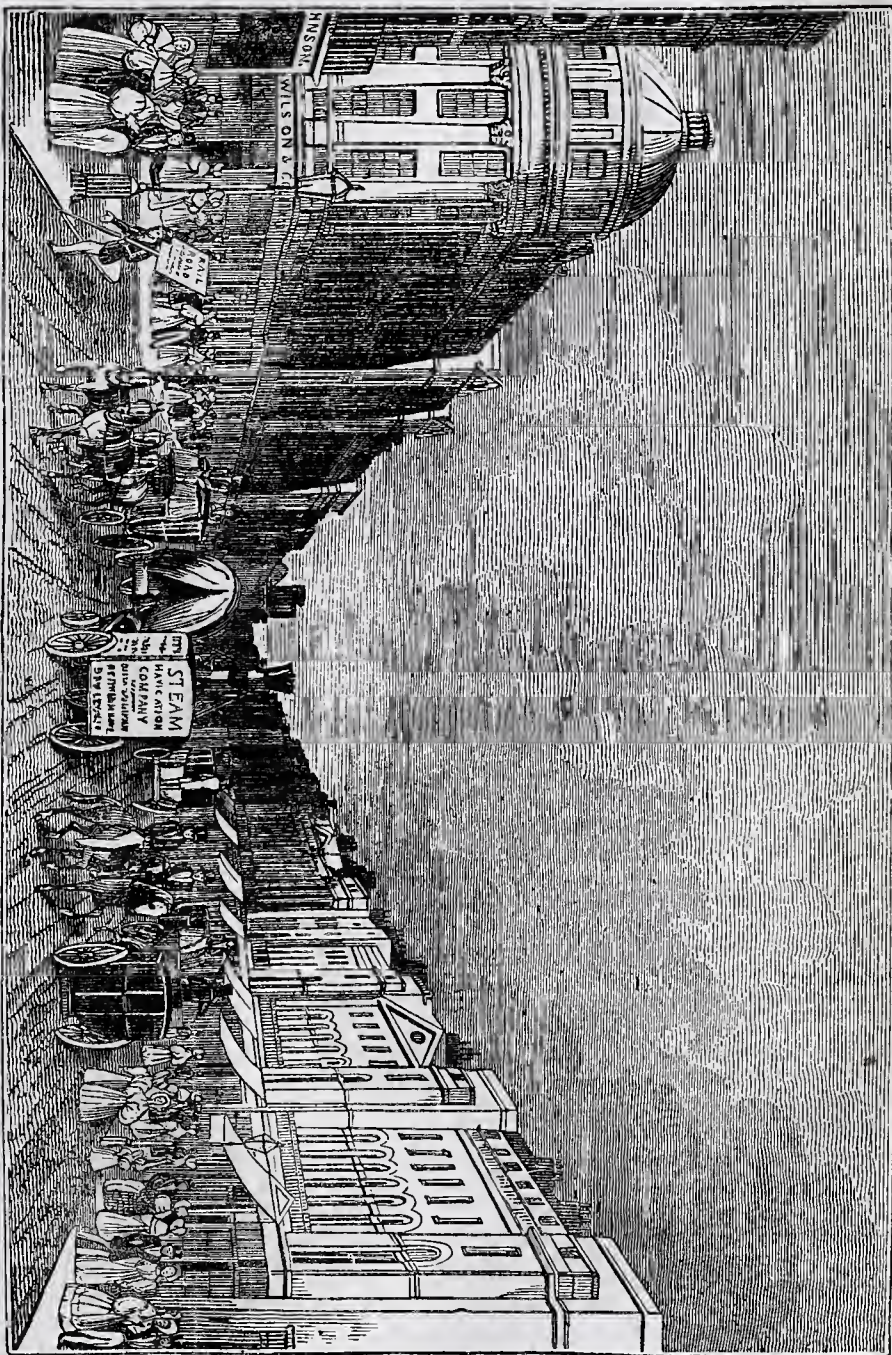
Ludgate Street, from St. Paul's.

kers, dealers in pork, beef, ham, and sausages, furniture-brokers, old-clothesmen, pawnbrokers, and ginshops. When evening has closed, a number of itinerant vendors of wares take up positions on the street, calculating on receiving their share of the Saturday-evening's spendings. Here and there are tin machines, some of them even elegantly finished off with brass mountings, each containing a fire, while the steam issues from a little pipe or funnel in each. The proprietors of these machines make the street resound with their cries of "all hot!" the objects of their sale being hot potatoes and butter, or pies. Some of them, either from the ambition of rivalry, or stimulated by the hope of profit (a hot potato and butter are sold for a halfpenny), hang little lamps of variegated colors round their machines. The barrow and basket men and women shield their candles from the wind by lanterns of tinted paper. Up to twelve o'clock the street has a most animated, nay, a brilliant appearance. Families that, from the nature or the remuneration of their occupations, can not dine together but once a week, are now busily occupied in getting "something comfortable" for the next day's dinner. It might be a scene of unmixed enjoyment to him who can sympathize with the humblest of his fellows, were it not for drawbacks. The ginshops get too large a share, in some cases, of the week's wages.

Before the "west end" had sprung into existence as an actual second London, Ludgate hill was a great resort of the ladies when they went out "a-shopping." In the "*Female Tatler*," of 1709, it is said: "This afternoon some ladies, having an opinion of my fancy in clothes, desired me to accompany them to Ludgate hill, which I take to be as agreeable an amusement as a lady can pass away three or four hours in. The shops are perfect gilded theatres, the variety of wrought silks, so many changes of fine scenes, and the mercers are the performers in the opera; and instead of '*vivitur ingenio*,' you have, in gold capitals, '*No trust by retail*.' They are the sweetest, fairest, nicest, dished-out creatures, and by their elegant address and soft speeches, you would guess them to be Italians. As people glance within their doors, they salute you with '*garden silks, ladies' Italian silks, brocades, tissues, cloth of silver or cloth of gold, very fine mantua silks, right Geneva velvet, English velvet, velvet embossed*.' And to the meaner sort, '*fine thread satins, both striped and plain, fine mohair silk, satinets, burdets, Persianets, Norwich crapes, anterines, silks for hoods and scarfs, hair camlets, druggets, or sagathies, gentlemen's nightgowns ready made, shallons, durances, and right Scotch plaids*.'"


The characteristics of the principal streets of the metropolis might be summed up in a few words: Regent street, a portion of Oxford street and Piccadilly, with Pall Mall, St. James's street, and Bond street, for showy grandeur and elegance; the Strand, Fleet street, Ludgate hill, Cheapside, and Cornhill, for more of substance than ostentation; and Holborn for a medium between "west-end" elegance and "city" solidity. Until recently, the great distinction between the shops of the west-end and the city was, in the latter, an absence of external attractions as compared with the west-end. But now, on Ludgate hill, and in St. Paul's Churchyard, there are establishments which, for magnificence, equal, if they do not surpass, anything the west-end has to show. In these gorgeous shops, which are occupied by silk-mercers, India shawls and scarfs of the richest texture, French-worked cambrics, Brussels lace, and silks of every quality and hue, are spread out in profusion; mirrors increase the effect, and immense plate-glass in the windows, set in brass frames guarded by brass fences, exhibit the goods "in the best possible light." Ludgate hill and street (it is Ludgate hill from Fleet street to the church, and Ludgate street from the church to St. Paul's Churchyard) is occupied by silk-mercers, jewellers, printsellers, booksellers, &c.

The "east end" of London knows little or nothing of those elegant modern refinements in shopkeeping which, under the names of bazars and arcades, are familiar to the "west end," and to various provincial towns. The shopkeepers of the city, though many of them are bestowing much of splendid decoration on their premises, still act on the maxim that a shop is neither more nor less than a shop, a place for positive buying and selling, and not intended to accommodate a congregation of loungers. Bazars and arcades are, therefore, more intended for those who have time and money at their disposal, and are, occasionally, uncertain how to spend either, than for the sober, specific, earnest purposes of trade. Thus, what is sold in these places belong principally to the lighter and more elegant branches of traffic: the pastry-cook may show himself among the sellers, but the baker and the butcher would be out of their element. In the shops of the arcade, and on the tables and counters of the bazar, are spread out whatever is thought likely to attract the eye,



Regent Street, looking north from the Quadrant.

and tempt to purchase. Hither comes the jeweller, with his rings, and chains, and seals, and watches; the perfumer has his oils, and combs, and brushes; the toyman with his dancing-jacks, and ever-galloping horsemen, tiny trumpets, drums, and violins, Chinese puzzles, and musical-boxes; the tobacconist offers his cigars and scented snuffs; the stationer and the music-seller exhibit prints, music, and musical-instruments; while the shoemaker, milliner, and bonnet-maker, display the neatest proofs of their respective handicrafts.

The first arcade we meet with in proceeding westward is the Lowther arcade, which runs from the Strand to Adelaide street, at the back of St. Martin's church. This is a fine passage, lofty and spacious, and lighted by ornamented circular skylights. The Burlington arcade, in Piccadilly, is narrower but much longer than the Lowther arcade. It is favorably situated near the thoroughfares of the "west end," and is itself a considerable thoroughfare. In Pimlico, where, about twenty years ago, were fields, now occupied by the fine houses which constitute Belgrave square, Wilton Crescent, &c., there is the Pantheon—a spirited attempt to combine on one spot all the supplies requisite for a rich and fashionable population. The Pantheon is a compound of the arcade and the bazar, and aims at a higher and more solid character than either have yet made for themselves. It consists of two large and distinct buildings—one termed the "carriage department," devoted to the purposes its name indicates; the other, having two paved passages or arcades, with shops on either side, stairs leading to show-rooms above, and wine-vaults below, while a significant " To the Bazar" intimates that lighter and more elegant trifles are not forgotten in the attention paid to carriages, furniture, and household supplies.

There are various bazars at the "west end," of which the more remarkable are, the one in Soho square, the first started in London, another in Baker street, Portman square, and a third in the building in Oxford street, which occupies the site of what was termed the Pantheon. The Pantheon was a handsome building devoted to purposes of amusement; it was nearly all burned in 1792; and the present building, which retains the portico of the former one, has, after some vicissitudes, been devoted to the purposes of a bazar. The ground-floor is neatly set round with tables, after the manner of a "fancy fair;" a flight of stairs leads to the upper floor, which is partly occupied in the same way; and a number of other rooms are set apart as a picture gallery, where pictures are hung up for sale. An open space in the centre of the upper floor, which is railed round, permits the light to fall from the roof on the lower floor, and hence the visiter can look down on the not uninteresting scene below. In the rear of the building is a conservatory, where plants and flowers are exhibited for sale, and which contains a mimic fountain and basin with gold and silver fish.

Regent street is divided into two distinct portions or streets. The first street, which is the shortest, runs up from Pall Mall to Piccadilly, terminating in an open circular space, called the Circus. The Haymarket on one side, and St. James street at some little distance on the other, run parallel with this Regent street, all three extending from Pall Mall to Piccadilly. The view from the Circus down Regent street, which slopes toward St. James's park, is excellent. The street, though rather short, is broad and spacious; the view extends across Pall Mall to the steps leading into the park, on the top of which is the pillar erected to the memory of the duke of York. From the Circus we turn round, through the colonnaded curve called the Quadrant, into the upper portion of Regent street. The Quadrant is certainly a singular street. Its form is a curve: colonnades supported on iron pillars run along on either side, underneath which the foot-passengers walk, and the shops here are of a similar character to the shops of an arcade. In cold, moist, wintry weather, these colonnades are dark, heavy-looking, and cheerless, even though they afford a shelter from the rain, while the sombre aspect of gas-lit shops in mid-day adds to the dreariness. In summer they are pleasant, cool, and shady, but still are lacking in that peculiar kind of effect which we associate with a colonnade in sultry weather.

On emerging from the Quadrant, the upper Regent street is spread before us; and if the period be the busy "season," and the time of day from two o'clock till four or five, or even six, with a bright summer sun pouring its radiance over spacious street and dingy alley, the view is, of its kind, one of the finest in the world. The newest fashions are displayed on the street; rows of carriages are drawn up at the edge of each pavement; loungers on foot, or on horseback, or whirling their cab-

riolets along, pass up and down ; at the doors of many of the shops forms are ostentatiously placed by the considerate shopmen, on which footmen recline, in liveries of various hues, awaiting the pleasure of their masters or mistresses within ; shopmen, trimly dressed, step out to receive the commands of those who do not choose to alight from their carriages, or else to deliver the purchases with a polite and humble attention ; and now and then, a hackney-coach, or an omnibus with its dozen passengers at sixpence each, or a poor beggar on the pavement, makes his appearance, as if to illustrate by the force of contrast all this showy splendor.

Bond street, divided into Old and New, is a short distance from Regent street, running parallel with it from Piccadilly to Oxford street. It is still a much frequented place, and many of its shops are elegant and grand, though its old consequence as a fashionable lounging-street has been somewhat eclipsed by its magnificent-looking rival.

The long line of Oxford street is full of many and remarkable contrasts. Shops of every character are to be found in it ; the baker and the confectioner, with their open windows, and smoking buns, and tarts that the sun has changed in color ; the fishmonger drenching his shop with water, to preserve his stock from the effects of the heat ; the public-house, at the doors of which stable-boys, footmen, and working-men, may be seen entering or emerging ; the coffee-shop ; the trunk-maker ; the hosier, in a little shop where there seems hardly room to turn between the shelves and the counter ; the saloon-like place where the mercer unrolls his silks ; the little stalls on the edge of the pavement, loaded with cabbage and cauliflowers, green peas, and new potatoes. The best part of Oxford street is from a little east of Regent street, proceeding westward. Being a great thoroughfare, it is perpetually thronged ; carriages, stage-coaches, cabriolets, and omnibuses, are ever rolling past—for Oxford street is the Cheapside of the “west end.”

We have already alluded to the other streets of the “west end, which are noted places—such as Pall Mall and St. James’s street. The great thoroughfares, or promenades, are Pall Mall, St. James’s street, New and Old Bond streets, Albemarle street, the two Regent streets, Oxford street, with the arcades and bazars. There are many fine shops here and there, some of them in very quiet-looking places, scattered among the private houses in the different streets. Charing Cross, the “west end” of the Strand, and part of Whitehall street may be added to the remarkable or noted streets.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

MARKETS.—SMITHFIELD, BILLINGSGATE, AND COVENT GARDEN.

THERE are four chief markets in London, which may be regarded as the fountain-heads, or grand reservoirs, whence the dealers of the metropolis, as well as persons in the country, draw their supplies : these are, Mark lane for grain, Smithfield for live stock, Billingsgate for fish, and Covent Garden for vegetables and fruit. A great portion of the other markets are for the sale of meat and vegetables, and may be regarded more as family markets (or at least as much so) than as markets for dealers. Thus Newgate and Leadenhall markets, the great emporiums of the carcass-butchers, are markets for the sale of meat and vegetables : the one is within a few minutes’ walk of Smithfield ; the other is near the East-India house, lying between Leadenhall and Fenchurch streets. Newport market, in Newport street, near Leicester square, is divided into the wholesale and retail markets : the retail market is merely a kind of row, or alley, with butchers’ shops on either side. Hungerford market—a handsome place on the banks of the Thames, which is entered from the Strand, near Charing Cross—may be regarded as a sort of adjunct or ally of Billingsgate, for such it was intended to be ; it is, however, a general market. The row of shops occupied by the “Whitechapel butchers” in High street, Aldgate, may be reckoned a meat-

market; and not very far thence is a vegetable-market in Spitalfields. Across the water, in Southwark, is the well-known "borough market;" Farringdon market, off Farringdon street, is in lieu of the old Fleet market, which was removed; there is a market not far from Finsbury square; Clare market is in Clare street, near Lincoln's-Inn-Fields; and at the "west end" are Portman and Carnaby markets—the latter a small market, as well as Oxford-street market, which, though now decayed, was some few years ago in a very flourishing condition. In short, London contains sixteen flesh-markets, and twenty-five markets for corn, coal, hay, vegetables, fish, or other principal articles of consumption. Of the flesh-markets, some are for live animals, some for carcasses in bulk, others for the retail of meat, and others for pork, fowls, &c.

The shops and the hawkers are the conduits and the pipes by which the supplies of the markets are distributed over the whole surface of the metropolis. The hawkers are a numerous and indefatigable generation. Manifold are the voices to be heard in every suburban district and retired street proclaiming whatever in its season is thought likely to sell. In the morning, mingled with the curious scream of the milkwoman, may be heard the long-drawn sound of "water-cresses!" then comes round the cats'-meat man, his little cart drawn by one or two dogs, while the household cats, as he approaches, recognise *his* voice, and manifest lively and unequivocal symptoms of interest; and, perhaps, before breakfast is over, a sound that is more a yell than a cry, emitted from iron lungs, and seemingly intended to reach the deepest recesses of the kitchen, announces that "hearthstone" is at hand. Breakfast is scarcely well over when the bakers' and the butchers' men begin their rounds: the bakers with baskets or barrows; the butchers, some on horseback, others with oval-shaped wooden trays upon their shoulders. Now come the men with their live soles, their eels, or their mackerel; with these are to be seen the venders of the cabbage, the cucumber, the onion, the lettuce, the cauliflower, peas, turnips, potatoes, or fruit; and the spaces which are left are filled up by itinerant hawkers of brooms, brushes, ornaments, &c., with now and then an Italian boy with his figure-tray, or a strolling minstrel with his hand-organ or his guitar. In the afternoon the hawkers go round again, for "supper"-time is drawing nigh. Has the stock of vegetables or of fish been unsold in the morning? It will disappear in the evening. Is the season for oysters gone? Then are not lobsters come in?

The seasons have their different effects on different markets. Thus the fine summer weather, during which Billingsgate is resplendent with fish, and Covent Garden blooming with vegetables, fruit, and flowers, causes the butcher to fret, makes him keep his shop or stall comparatively bare and scanty, while the passer-by is more apt to turn away, than to stand still and admire the meat. But let Christmas and a nipping frost approach together; let the season come round when cattle-shows are held, and fat oxen are brought up in wagons because they can not well waddle on foot to town, and the scene will be changed. It is indeed a rich treat, immediately preceding the great anniversary, to see the crowds standing at the butchers' shops, and feasting their admiring eyes on the glorious "barons of beef" hung up around.

Smithfield is a cattle-market on Mondays and Fridays, and a hay and straw market is held in it on Tuesdays, Wednesdays, and Saturdays. The great market-day is Monday, or rather Monday morning. The place is a large irregular area, enclosed by houses. It is so arranged that the cattle arrive in the outskirts of London on Sunday, and toward evening they are driven into the city. There are two great thoroughfares by which the cattle are brought to London: by the great northern road, over Highgate hill, and through Islington; and by the eastern outlet of the city, the Whitechapel road. They continue arriving in Smithfield from about nine o'clock on Sunday night till toward morning. During the dark nights of winter, when the supply of cattle in the market is greatest, and especially about the time of what is called the "great market," near the end of the year, the scene in Smithfield is terrific. The drovers are furnished with torches, to enable them to distinguish the marks on the cattle—to put the sheep in pens—and to form the "beasts" into droves; the latter are all placed with their heads to the centres of the droves, which is done for the purpose of enabling the purchasers to examine the bodies of the animals more easily. This is not accomplished without very great exertion: the different flocks of sheep have to be kept from mixing with each other, and the bullocks are severely beaten over the nostrils to compel them to form into the drove or circle, and then to stand patiently. The lowing of the "beasts," the tremulous cries of the sheep, the barking of dogs, the rattling of sticks on the heads and



River Front of Hungerford Market.

bodies of the animals, the shouts of the drovers, and the flashing about of torches, present altogether a wild combination.

As morning breaks, the purchasers arrive, and arduous work it is for both buyer and seller. When a bullock has been purchased, it has to be separated from the drove; and the poor animal is not only reluctant to be driven out, but, naturally dreading a repetition of former treatment, it thrusts its head into every drove it passes, causing a shower of blows to descend on it and every animal it disturbs; then a flock of sheep, when let out of a pen, run hither and thither: sometimes, on emerging from the market, scattered by a wagon or a coach, and sometimes darting with rapidity in the direction they are not wanted to go. Woe to the novice who is careless of his dress, and attempts to pass through Smithfield on a wet, wintry-Monday morning!

The cattle-market held on Fridays in Smithfield is of very minor importance when compared with the market on Mondays. But there is a horse-market held on the afternoon of the Fridays, which, though far from being a creditable affair, is exceedingly amusing: the knowing look of the jockeys, who are attempting to display their broken-down animals to the best advantage, and the fun and laughter going on at one part of Smithfield where costermongers assemble to buy and sell their asses, are not without attraction to those who can relish scenes of low drollery, and coarse and boisterous mirth. The character of Smithfield as a *horse-market* is not very high. In 1828, it was stated to be the means of bringing together "all the rogues and thieves within ten miles of London," and that it was "the most abominable scene that can be imagined." It is not quite so bad now, being under better police regulations.

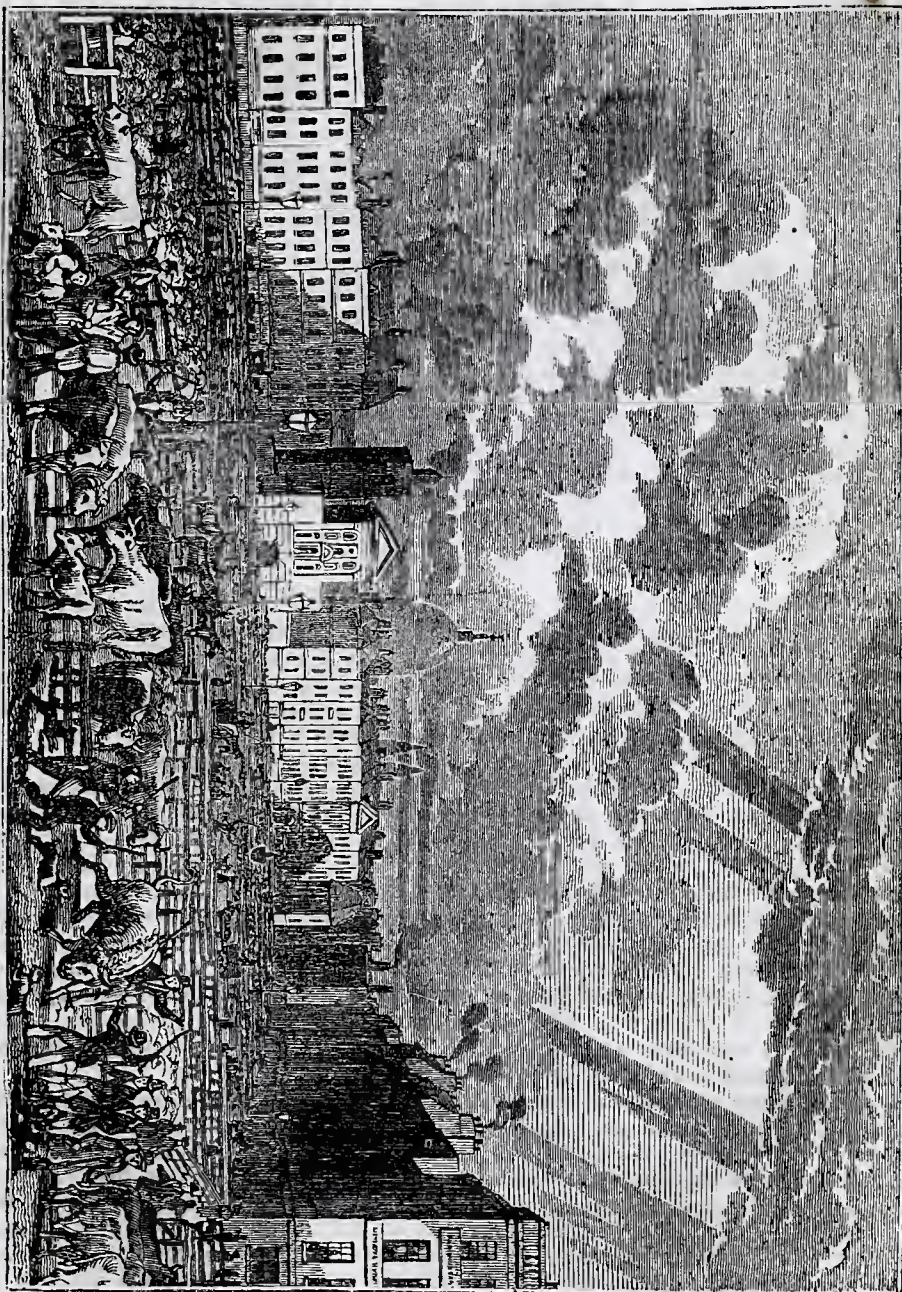
Very little meat is sold by the butchers in London on a Monday, except by those who supply exclusively the upper ranks of society. The habits of the working and middle classes of the metropolis lead them to cook a large quantity of food on the previous day, the remains of which serve them on Monday. For this reason the butchers prefer the market of live stock to be on Monday in preference to any other day, as they have then more time to attend to it. Monday also being the great day at Mark lane, individuals from the country doing business both in cattle and in grain are able to attend Smithfield in the morning, and Mark lane during the day. Taking a period of twelve years, the annual average of "beasts" sold in Smithfield is one hundred and forty-seven thousand, five hundred and thirty-six, and of sheep one million, two hundred and twenty thousand, one hundred and fifty.

The smaller retail butchers do not buy animals in Smithfield, unless it may be now and then a few sheep; they prefer purchasing from the carcass-butchers, who kill to a large extent for the supply of the smaller dealers in meat. The carcass-butchers have their places in different parts of London, but they are to be found principally in Warwick lane, which runs from Newgate street to Paternoster row, in Newgate market close adjoining, in Leadenhall market, in High street, Aldgate (the "White-chapel butchers"), &c. Many of these butchers are in both the wholesale and the retail trade, and the business which some of them transact is very great.

A large quantity of what is termed "country-killed meat" is brought to London—more in cold weather than in warm. What effect will the railroads ultimately have on Smithfield market? The carriage of meat in warm weather deteriorates it: but if means are afforded of bringing it up with rapidity, and without jolting, there is no doubt that the quantity of "country-killed meat" brought to the metropolis will be considerably increased. The flesh of an animal killed without undergoing the fatigue of a long journey, and without being excited, goaded, and driven about in a crowded market, must necessarily be sweeter than that of one bought in Smithfield, and killed shortly afterward. It is stated, however—and the statement appears natural enough—that the London slaughter-men have a knack and handiness in performing their work which the country slaughterers can not attain. A few of the London butchers have fields, where they feed and rest their purchases before they kill them.

A great quantity of pork is brought from various parts of the country, especially from Wiltshire, Berkshire, Essex, &c. The veal which is killed in the country is brought up packed, generally in dry straw and cloth. A considerable quantity of mutton is also brought up from the country.

Newgate and Leadenhall markets, being old established seats of business, are more famed for the nature of their supplies, than for the extent or beauty of the ac-



Smithfield Cattle Market.

cominodations of the market-places. The same, indeed, may be said of all the old markets of London. It is hard to change old habits. The finest market may be erected; but that of itself is not sufficient to bring the supplies, and, therefore, the people.

Billingsgate lies immediately below London bridge, at the western extremity of the customhouse. It was established in 1699, and is held every day, except Sunday, when however mackerel is allowed to be sold. The market is so divided that oysters are sold in one part, and other descriptions of shellfish in another; red herrings, cod, salmon, and eels, are to be found in the respective divisions of the market assigned for their sale. The two latter are the only kinds sold by weight. Between the fisherman and the retail fishmonger there is an intermediate class of dealers, about thirty in number, termed salesmen, who alone occupy stalls in the market. The fishermen consign their cargoes to the salesmen, who are compelled to fix up in a conspicuous place a statement of the kind and amount of their stock; but they are not allowed to expose fish for sale before the ringing of the market-bell, at five o'clock.

As might naturally be expected, the country round about London is largely occupied by the growers of vegetable produce. The Middlesex side of the Thames above London contains a considerable proportion of horticulturists; but Middlesex supplies but a small portion of the produce sold in Covent-Garden market. The home produce there sold comes from several counties—a large proportion from Kent. There are, however, no means of ascertaining the amount brought into Covent-Garden market. It is only from the casual comers that an account of what they bring is taken, in order to settle the amount of toll which they are required to pay. Those who occupy shops or stands by the week, or by the year, and who sell by far the greater part of the produce brought in, merely pay their rents as they would do in occupying a shop anywhere else. Some of those shops or stands, held only from week to week, have continued in the same families through two or even three generations.

Covent Garden belonged to the abbots of Westminster, and was termed the Convent Garden. On the dissolution of the monasteries, it was given to the duke of Somerset; and after his fall, it was granted, in 1552, to the earl of Bedford. For a long period it was only used as a pasture-ground, and was afterward let on a building-lease. At this time the square was planned out; and Inigo Jones was employed in designing it—the piazza or portico which runs round a portion of the square being his work. The origin of the market was casual—people coming and standing in the centre of the square with produce for sale gradually leading to the establishment of a regular market. Though the market became the best in London for vegetable productions, its appearance, like that of old Fleet market, which has been removed, was very unsightly, being an irregular combination of sheds and standings. But about six years ago, in consequence of the passing of an act of parliament for the purpose, the present convenient, though somewhat singular series of market buildings were built at the expense of the duke of Bedford, who receives a revenue from the rents and tolls. The markets may be termed a combination of the arcade and the colonnade, having covered passages with shops, and colonnades where dealers pitch their stands or baskets. One side of the market is reserved for coarser produce, potatoes, &c.; vegetables and fruit are tolerably well separated from each other, and flowers and plants are also assigned a distinct quarter.

Covent-Garden market is a daily market, and is at all times more or less worth a visit; but to those who do not object to rise early, and who do not care much about the jostling of a crowd, it is particularly worth a visit in summer, on one of the market mornings, which occur three times a week. From about half-past three till about half-past four there is no crowd in the market, though business is transacting with considerable rapidity. Industrious men and women are here, who are up betimes; and here also are the "higglers," who act on the old and veritable country maxim, that "the early bird catches the worm." These interpose themselves between the grower and the small dealer, buying an entire stock from the former at a venture, and endeavoring to sell to the latter at an enhanced price. From about five o'clock down till seven or eight the crowd is great. The greengrocers come jogging in their taxed carts; porters push through the narrow spaces with a load of baskets on their heads; and a kind of subdued, clamoring sound echoes along the colonnades and the piazza, broken in upon now and then by some sharp, vociferous dispute between a



Covent Garden Market.

couple of basket-women. Here, against the pillars of the piazza, are little tables, with tea and bread and butter for sale; and hawkers thread their way through the lane of human beings, or occupy a position at a corner, proffering cakes and buns, combs, knives, and pocketbooks. And, though it is pleasant to see the tea-tables meeting with ready custom, still the public houses are not without their share of customers. One can almost tolerate the public houses in Smithfield, open all Sunday night and Monday morning, for arduous is the drover's work; but tea and coffee would seem a more fitting refreshment in Covent-Garden market than gin or "purl."

Though Covent Garden is the chief market in London for fruit and vegetables, a very considerable amount is brought to other places. The Borough market and Spitalfields market, in particular, are very well supplied, especially in coarser vegetable produce; they are a sort of headquarters for the sale of potatoes. In the neighborhood of the Borough market, also, chiefly in the main street of Southwark, leading from London bridge, and in adjoining streets, the "Hop Dealers" congregate.

The Corn exchange, in Mark lane, is more a national than a metropolitan market. The building is large and commodious. In the interior, which is a quadrangular paved court, surrounded by a colonnade, the corn-factors have binns or desks, for the purpose of containing samples of their grain. Purchasers take out a handful, testing the grain by the usual processes of tasting, feeling, smelling, and weighing; and, when a bargain is concluded, the quantity purchased is disposed of according to instructions.

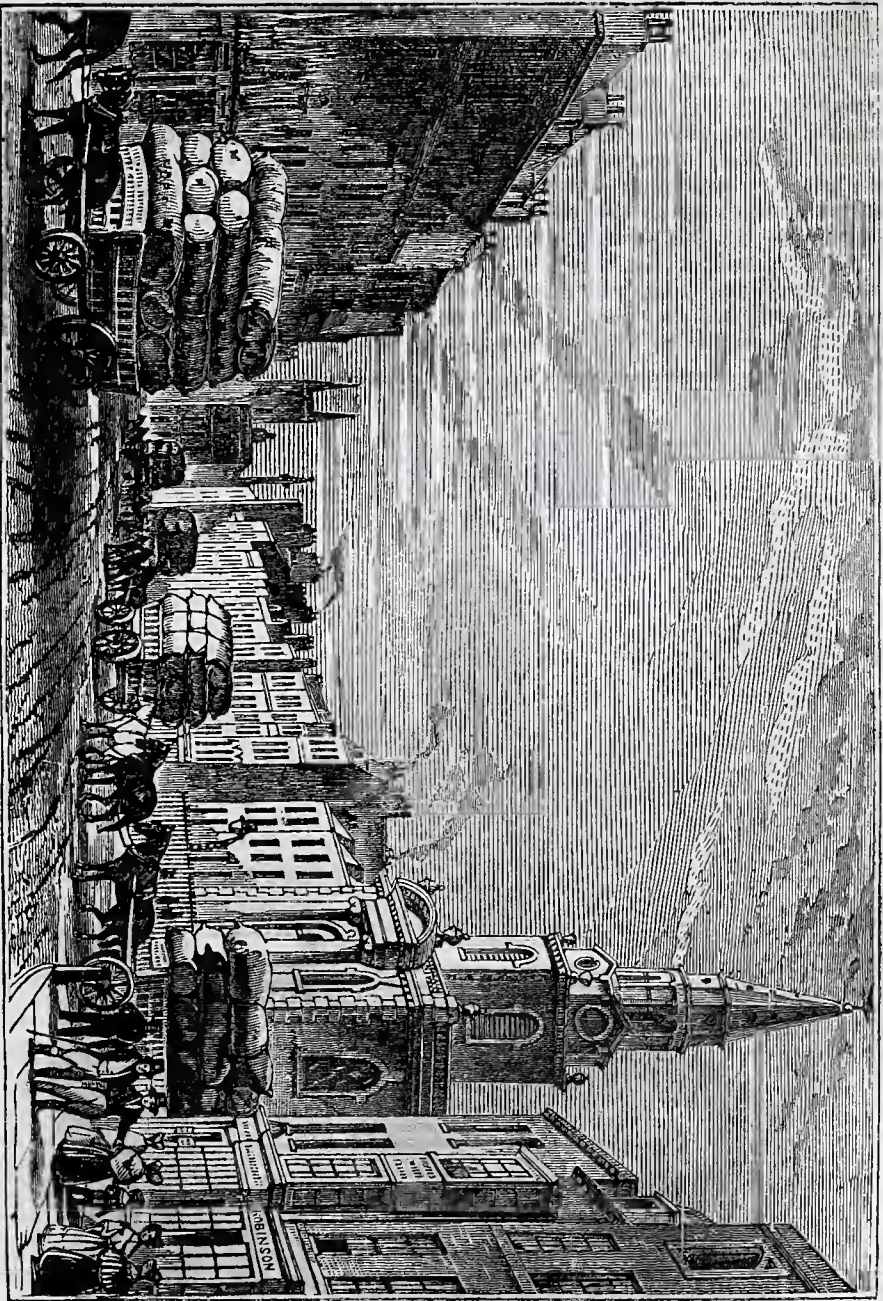
CHAPTER XXXIV.

MANUFACTURES.—SPITALFIELDS.—THE BOROUGH.—BERMONDSEY AND TOOLEY STREET.

THERE are no manufactures (using the word in its more confined and modern acceptance) carried on in London, with the exception of that of silk; which at one time might have been considered as almost peculiar to the metropolis. But, as might be naturally expected, from the combination of capital and labor, there are several manufacturing processes conducted on a larger scale than anywhere else in the United Kingdom, or even in the world. Some of these are located in particular quarters of London. Thus, while the manufacture of silk is confined almost exclusively to Spitalfields, nearly all the sugar-refiners have their establishments in Whitechapel; and the borough of Southwark is noted for dealers in hops, manufacturers of hats, hide and leather merchants, wool-staplers, fellmongers, tanners, dyers, and rope-makers. The manufacture of earthenware is also carried on to some extent in Lambeth.

Spitalfields is a large and now decayed and squalid portion of London, lying on the northeast side of the "city." This, and Bethnal Green, and a small portion of Whitechapel, may be considered as one district; bounded on the west by Bishopgate street and Shoreditch; on the north by the Hackney road; and on the south by the great eastern outlet of the city, the Whitechapel road, which separates it from the main portion of Whitechapel—a district, in many parts, equally squalid with Spitalfields, but which (from containing many public works, the docks, &c.) does not exhibit such an impoverished and dejected aspect. The *Spital fields* were begun to be built on during the seventeenth century; and the houses being suburban, were occupied by the silkworkers, being in the vicinity of the city, and yet affording air and light. Toward the close of the seventeenth, and beginning of the eighteenth century, the buildings rapidly increased, until Spitalfields became what it now is, a mass of narrow, inconvenient, and badly-ventilated streets, lanes, courts, and alleys.

The greater part of Spitalfields is a dreary and dismal place; it pains one's heart to walk through it. Dirty and narrow streets; many old tumble-down houses; windows patched with paper, pasteboard, or perhaps the broken pane stuffed out with



High Street, Borough.

an old hat ; here and there a green-grocer's or cheesemonger's shop, a potato or coal-shed, or a ginshop, whose occupants seem to thrive in the midst of poverty—these are the characteristics of this region. But the squalidness of Spitalfields does not arise from the poverty of the weavers alone. Dr. Kay, an assistant poor-law commissioner, who inspected the district in the month of April, 1837, for the purpose of reporting on the distress then prevailing, says: “The district called Spitalfields contains a large population not concerned with the silk trade. A portion of the casual population of London frequents either the lodging-houses, or the rooms which commonly contain a household, and the rent of which is collected from week to week. The Irish who are employed at the docks, or as bricklayers' laborers and porters throughout the city and town, together with a considerable number of Irish silk-weavers, form another element of the population ; and English, also employed as porters and laborers, together with shoemakers, carpenters, cabinet-makers, clockmakers, hawkers, and other similar trades, are mixed with the mass of the weavers. The parishes in which the weaving population is chiefly found are Christchurch, Spitalfields ; St. Matthew, Bethnal Green ; Mile-End, New Town ; St. Leonard, Shoreditch ; and St. Mary, Whitechapel.”

Leaving Spitalfields, and passing Whitechapel (a visit to Rosemary lane, alias Rag Fair, will bring us back to it), let us cross London bridge, and enter Southwark. High street, the main street of the borough, is on a line with the bridge. Welling-



London Bridge.

ton street, the new approach to the bridge on the Southwark side, is, like King William street on the opposite or city side, quite new and spacious; and at first a visiter would not think he had entered the ancient borough of Southwark. But a little higher up, we are in the High street, with its town-hall, and church, and shop-like postoffice; and here we might imagine we were in the main street of a bustling country town. Upward of one half of the hop-dealers of the metropolis have their shops or establishments in the High street; and of the remainder, the greater portion are in the immediate neighborhood. The other occupants of the High street are dealers of every description—woollen and linen drapers, butchers, cheesemongers, hardware merchants, surgeons, chymists, tobaccoists, tea-dealers, &c., with sundry wagon-inns, and public houses.

Bermondsey is the name of a parish now included in the parliamentary borough of Southwark, and which lies eastward of the Borough High street and London bridge: the Greenwich railroad passes through it. A great portion of the coarser manufacturing processes of the metropolis are carried on in it, and in its adjoining neighbor, Rotherhithe. They abound with tanneries, tenter grounds, glue and soap manufactories, rope-walks, brimstone and saltpetre works, &c. Bermondsey is not closely built upon, for the manufactures carried on within it require considerable space, and the pungent odors they diffuse invite nobody to reside in the district but those who have an interest in so doing. Yet Bermondsey is a far pleasanter place to walk in than Spitalfields. Industry within it has a rough and even repulsive aspect, but heart-withering poverty has not shed a blight over the whole place. Some of the streets and lanes, especially toward the water-side, are dirty-looking enough; but there are many open spaces, with rows of neat cottages, inhabited by the workmen connected with the establishments in the neighborhood.

Bermondsey street, the main street of the parish, runs up southward from about the centre of Tooley street, at some little distance from, but not quite parallel to, the Borough High street. Besides the usual class of tradesmen, cheesemongers, bakers, butchers, publicans, &c., it is inhabited by wool-staplers, hair-merchants, leather-manufacturers, curriers, vinegar-manufacturers, drysalts, &c. Nearly all the wool-staplers, fell-mongers, and tanners of London are to be found in Bermondsey. Off Bermondsey street there is a large new skin or leather-market, tenanted by leather-factors, skin-merchants, and tanners; and in its immediate vicinity are tan-yards. The reason why the tanneries of Bermondsey are the largest in the empire, may be found in the circumstances of the large capital required, and the ready market and great demand afforded by the extensive operations of London—coach-making and book-binding. The manufacture of morocco leather is almost exclusively confined to the tanneries of Bermondsey. Formerly, the hides to be tanned were kept in the pits six, twelve, or eighteen months, and in some instances two years, or even more. But now science has been called in to shorten the time occupied in the process. "The improved process," says Mr. Babbage, "consists in placing the hides with the solution of tan in close vessels, and then exhausting the air. The effect is to withdraw any air which may be contained in the pores of the hides, and to aid capillary attraction by the pressure of the atmosphere in forcing the tan into the interior of the skins. The effect of the additional force thus brought into action can be equal only to one atmosphere; but a further improvement has been made: the vessel containing the hides is, after exhaustion, filled up with a solution of tan; a small additional quantity is then injected with a forcing-pump. By these means any degree of pressure may be given which the containing-vessel is capable of supporting; and it has been found that, by employing such a method, the thickest hides can be tanned in six weeks or two months."

Tooley street has a different aspect now from what it had when it was immortalized by Mr. Canning's clever, though somewhat flippant joke, about three tailors in it assembled to draw up a petition to the house of commons, and commencing it with "We, the people of England." There are a few tailors in Tooley street, but they inhabit the lower portion of it, along with the slop-sellers, chandlers, brokers, and other tradesmen. The street runs from London bridge eastward, passing the foot of Bermondsey street; the upper portion of it, adjoining the bridge, has undergone a thorough reconstruction, and is occupied by wharfingers, hop and cider-merchants, wholesale potato-merchants, and other dealers in what may be termed bulky goods. Here the crane and pulley seem never to be idle during the entire day. Drays and carts are continually loading and unloading; sacks, bags, boxes, and bar



Tooley Street, with Drays.

rels are swinging up and down; hops are storing in warehouses, or carting to the brewers; beer and cider are transferring either to or from the vessels at the wharfs; and goods of various kinds are carrying out and in from the wharves.

The manufacture of hats is carried on to a large extent in Southwark; and in Lambeth, which has increased very largely within the last fifteen or twenty years, there are a considerable number of establishments, in which the manufactures of machinery, earthenware, &c., are carried on. The large printing establishment of the Messrs. Clowes is in Lambeth. We might appear to degrade the production of books if we call it a manufacture; but it is really so, in all the divisions of labor and mechanical inventions which constitute a factory upon a large scale.

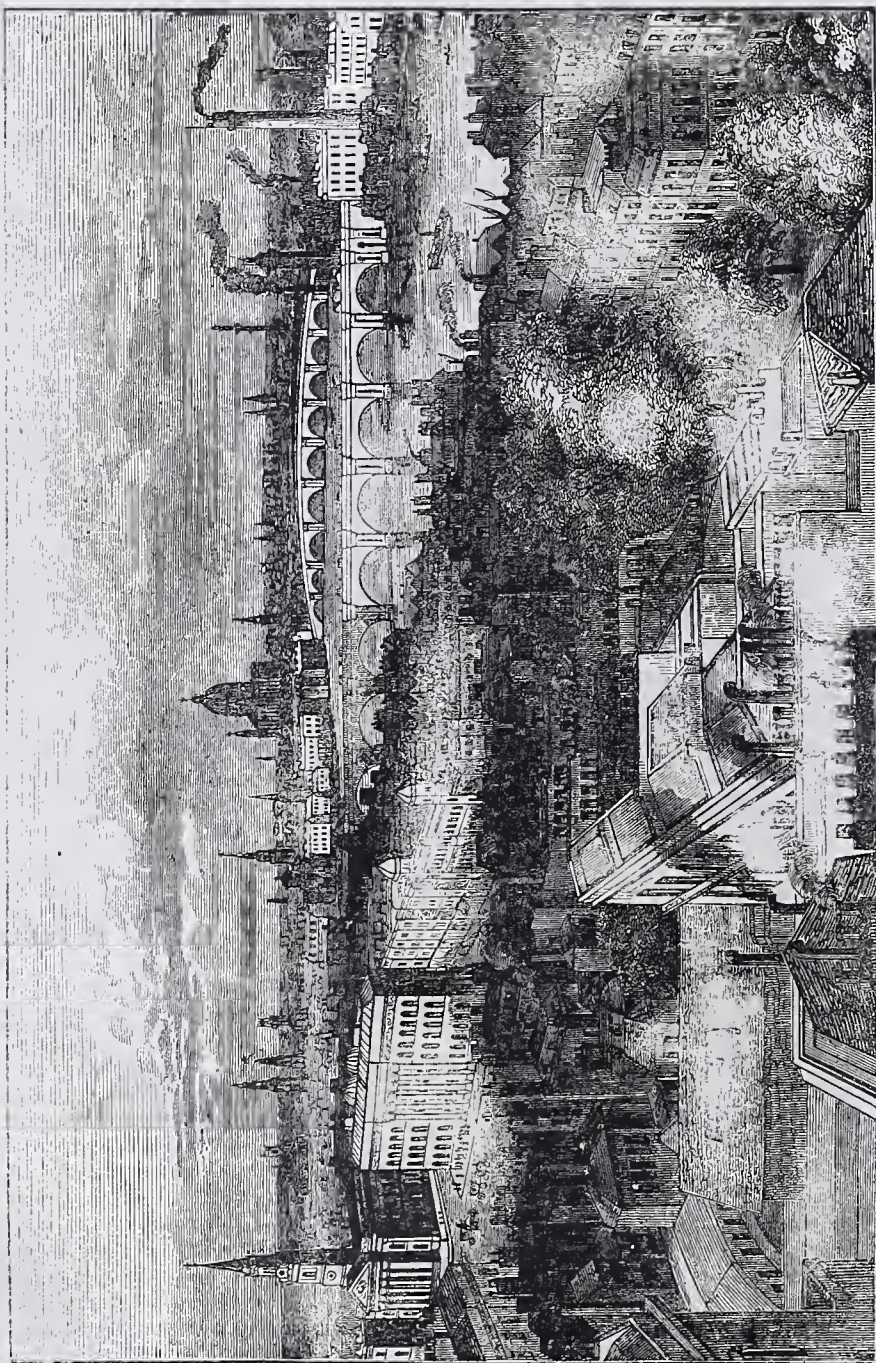
CHAPTER XXXV.

BRIDGES.

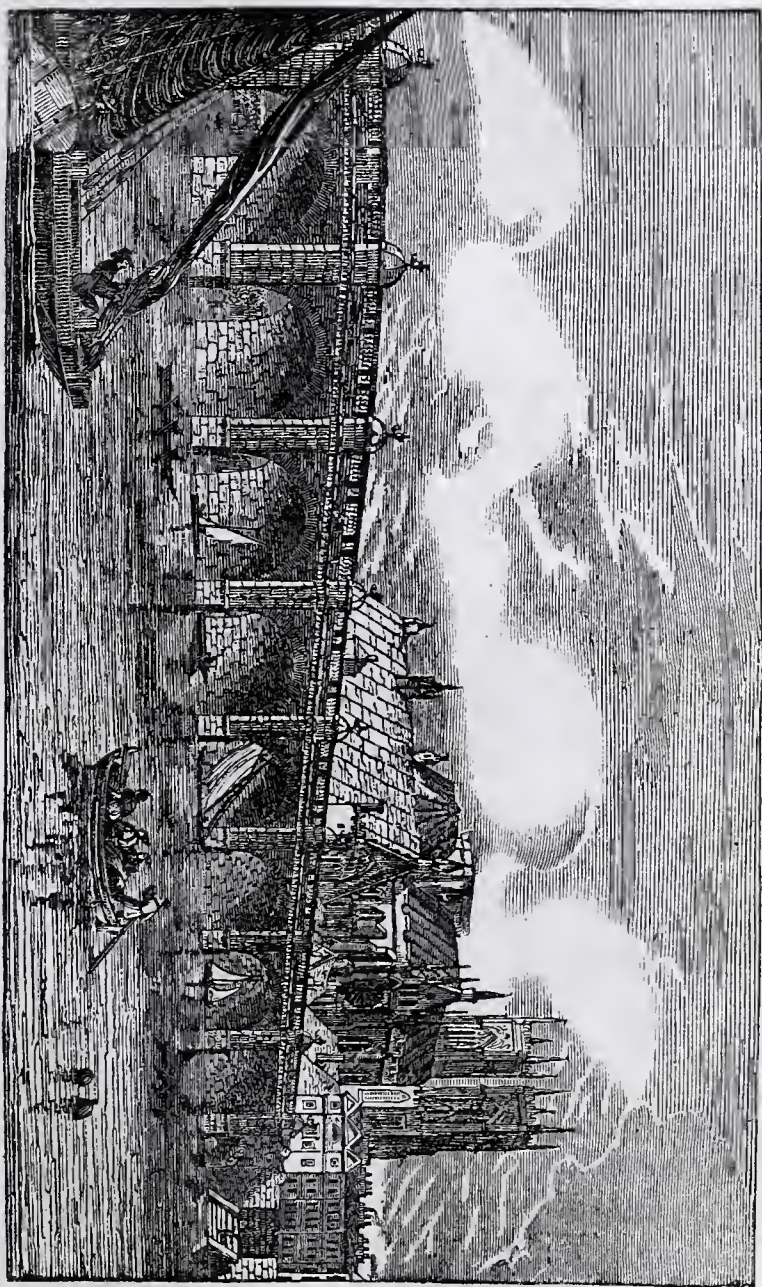
OLD London bridge was for six centuries the only bridge across the Thames at London. It was begun, according to Stowe, in 1176; and Westminster bridge, the next that was built, was not opened till 1748. London bridge was built of stone but it was covered with houses, most of them of wood, which were frequently destroyed by fire. After Westminster bridge was opened, the houses of London bridge were removed, under authority of acts of parliament; and the bridge itself was greatly widened and improved. It continued a kind of convenient nuisance, perpetually requiring to be propped up and repaired, but strong in the attachment and antiquarian veneration which its old eventful associations created, till 1831; and now, unless we except the monument, there is scarcely a landmark left by which to indicate where it once stood.

We now count six bridges across the Thames at London—eight, if we go above Vauxhall, and include the suburban bridges of Battersea and Putney. Putney bridge, a clumsy wooden structure, was built between 1726 and 1729; its arches are the Scylla and Charybdis of amateur boatmen on the Thames, and, like the arches of Old London bridge, are not unfrequently the cause of loss of life to the careless or inexperienced.

Westminster bridge was the first bridge erected after London bridge. It is adjacent to the houses of parliament, and is also in the vicinity of Westminster hall. On the 13th of September, 1738, the preparations for the building of Westminster bridge were begun, by the driving of the first pile for its foundation, in the presence of a vast multitude of spectators: the piers were built in coffer-dams. On the 29th of January following, the first stone of one of the two central piers (that next the west side) was laid by the earl of Pembroke. The whole structure is built of stone, and principally of Portland block stones, of which few are less than a ton in weight, while many are two or three, and some even four or five tons. There are fourteen piers in all, besides the two abutments, and consequently fifteen arches; they are semi-circular in form, and the span of that in the middle is seventy-six feet: the others gradually decrease in width; the sixth from the centre on each side being only fifty-two feet, and the two next the abutments only twenty-five each. The whole length of the bridge is twelve hundred and twenty-three feet; and the clear water-way under the arches is eight hundred and seventy feet. The road over it is forty-four feet in breadth, the footpaths on each side included. In the beginning of 1747, when it was nearly completed, one of the piers sunk so much as to determine the commissioners to have it pulled down and rebuilt; and this was the only circumstance by which the work was materially retarded. It was at last brought to a conclusion on the 10th of November that year—when the new bridge was formally opened by a procession passing over it. The work cost in all three hundred and eighty-nine thousand, and five hundred pounds sterling, which was granted for the purpose in successive years by parliament. Maitland states that the value of forty thousand pounds is computed to be always under water in stone and other materials; and, according



London, from the York Column.



Westminster Bridge.

to other authorities, the whole quantity of stone used in this bridge is asserted to have been nearly double that employed in St. Paul's cathedral.

Blackfriars bridge was begun in about ten years after the opening of Westminster bridge. At the time it was built it was thought a noble specimen of bridge-building, and it was so unquestionably, until such engineers as Telford and Rennie carried forward the art. Situated not far from Fleet street and Ludgate hill, it is, like London bridge, one of the great thoroughfares of the metropolis. The declivity of the bridge, and the friable stone of which it was built, have rendered necessary very extensive alterations and repairs.

Southwark and Waterloo bridges—the first a fine structure of cast-iron, the second of granite, and one of the noblest bridges in the world—were nearly contemporaneous in their erection. Waterloo bridge was begun in 1811, and completed in 1817; Southwark bridge was begun in 1814, and opened in 1819. Vauxhall bridge, which is the farthest up the river of the strictly London bridges, was also built about the same time as the Southwark and Waterloo bridge: it was begun in 1813, and finished in 1816. It consists of nine arches of equal span, in squares of cast-iron, resting on piers of rusticated stone.

New London bridge was begun in 1824, and opened in 1831. Both it and Waterloo bridge were opened with great ceremony and pomp—Waterloo bridge on the anniversary of the battle of Waterloo, in 1817, by George IV., then prince regent, and the duke of Wellington; London bridge by the late king, William IV., accompanied by the present queen-dowager.

London bridge consists of five semi-elliptic arches: the least of these is larger than any other stone arch of this form ever erected; the centre arch is one hundred and fifty-two feet span, with a rise above high-water mark of twenty-nine feet six inches; the two arches next the centre are one hundred and forty feet in span; the abutments are each one hundred and thirty feet in span. The roadway is fifty-three feet wide between the parapets, the footway occupying nine feet each: the rise in the road is only one in one hundred and thirty-two. The length of the bridge, from the extremity of the abutments, is nine hundred and twenty-eight feet; within the abutments, seven hundred and eighty-two feet. The whole of the bridge is built of granite, and the total quantity of stone employed amounts to about one hundred and twenty thousand tons. The new bridge is, like the old one, free of toll.

Of the six bridges, three are open thoroughfares, and at three tolls are paid; and it so happens that one of each kind occurs alternately. The three open bridges are London, Blackfriars, and Westminster; and at all periods of the day they may be seen thronged by a multitude of passengers on foot, in carriages, and on horseback. At each of the other bridges there are toll-houses, with metal turnstiles attached to each. Connected with each turnstile is an index in the toll-house, by which the number of foot-passengers can be distinctly ascertained during each day. The number of passengers on foot and horseback who use these bridges, though far from being inconsiderable, is yet very small when compared with the other bridges.

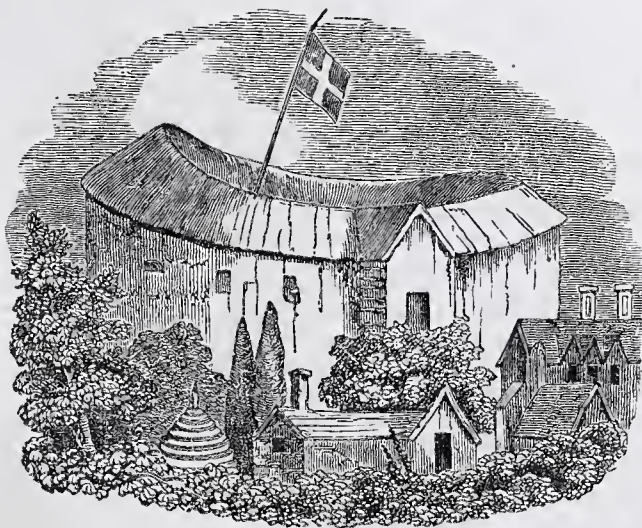
Waterloo bridge affords the finest walk to be had in the heart of London. It is in the immediate neighborhood of the thronged Strand; and on either side of it, at some little distance, Westminster and Blackfriars bridges may be seen covered with an apparently never-ending crowd. But the toll (one penny for each foot-passenger) keeps Waterloo bridge free from the inconveniences of a thronged thoroughfare; and one can walk with ease and comfort along its level extent, and enjoy the fine perspective view of London which, by the sharp turn of the river, is here brought before the eye. The noble river front of Somerset house is close by the bridge; the dome of St. Paul's does not appear so vast as on Blackfriars bridge, but the distance, which somewhat diminishes the idea of the size, "lends enchantment to the view;" and the towers of Westminster abbey are seen rising above their surrounding objects. It is pleasant, on the close of a sultry day, to escape to Waterloo bridge from the heated pavement and brick walls of Fleet street and the Strand; and on such an evening the nervous or impatient man, panting for a breath of air, and who fancies that the very noise of the streets aggravates all his uncomfortable sensations, will doubly enjoy the breeze that ripples the surface of the river: and, in marking how the setting sun touches dome, tower, and pinnacle, with its varied hues, will even tolerate the now-softened sounds that so lately irritated his nerves.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

AMUSEMENTS.—THE THEATRES AND EXHIBITIONS.

In a map prefixed to Maitland's London, representing the metropolis as it appeared "about the year 1560," there is no trace of a theatre, though we know that about twenty years afterward there were three or four. But if there be no theatre, the map is not without evidence of what were public amusements. In those days, when strolling players were content to perform in the courtyard of an inn, their spectators looking down upon them from the old wooden balconies, rougher amusements had secured for themselves permanent habitations. Among the references in the map is one to the cockpit, and conspicuous on the Surrey side of the Thames, behind the strip of houses known then as the notorious Bankside, are two round buildings, open at the top, and adorned with flags, under which are written "bull-baiting and bear-baiting."

There appears to have been a theatre in London in the year 1576: it was probably the first regular theatre of the metropolis. In that year also was the Blackfriars built, so famous for Shakspere's connexion with it; and in the year following the Curtain, in Shoreditch, in which Ben Jonson performed. These were speedily followed by others, which, as they were mostly small wooden structures, were easily thrown up, and as easily consumed by the slightest touch of fire. A view of the Globe theatre, at Bankside, is given here.



Globe Theatre, Bankside.

While the theatre was undergoing various mutations—now seemingly established by Shakspere and his colleagues, then driven into obscurity by the stern spirit of religious zeal; again patronised, and made a nest of profligacy, and from that time gradually but slowly elevated—the great bulk of the people remained attached to their rough and out-of-door amusements. During the last century, bear-baiting and bull-baiting continued to attract crowded audiences, and boasted of the patronage of "persons of quality;" the self-styled "noble art of self-defence," not with fists merely, but with sharp slashing swords, drew females to witness its brutal exhibitions; and even females publicly advertised boxing matches, with all the swagger of bullies. The people did go to the theatre; they filled the galleries, disturbed the performances, and dictated to the actors. If they chose to indulge in the horse-play of

stopping the coaches and sedans conveying masqueraders to their amusements, and ordering them to let down their masks, that they might see who they were, nobody thought of resisting the joke—even rough-spun Johnson was glad to escape into anti-thetis, and to exclaim, that “their insolence in peace was their bravery in war.”

The bear-gardens and cockpits have disappeared, and in their stead are zoological gardens; the fairs of London have been blotted out, one by one, except Bartholomew Fair, which still annually, with its booths, puppets, crowds, and gilt gingerbread, keeps Smithfield cattle-market in countenance; but old age and decay are stamped on it. Crowds do not rush now, as they did a few years ago, to the “Fives Court,” or to some field adjoining London, to see men shake hands, and then fall to pounding each other. Were Shakspeare now to walk into one of our gas-lighted theatres, he might fancy that machinist, property-man, and painter, were really inspired by “a muse of fire;” and if they had not risen, were at least rising “into the highest heaven of invention.”

Malcolm, at the commencement of the present century, complained that “the amusements of the present day are very confined.” There were then but five or six theatres—there are eighteen at present; and this number, taking into account, also, the numerous new sources of instructive entertainment that have sprung up—institutions, lectures, and libraries—shows that there is no decline of attachment on the part of the people of London to theatrical amusements.

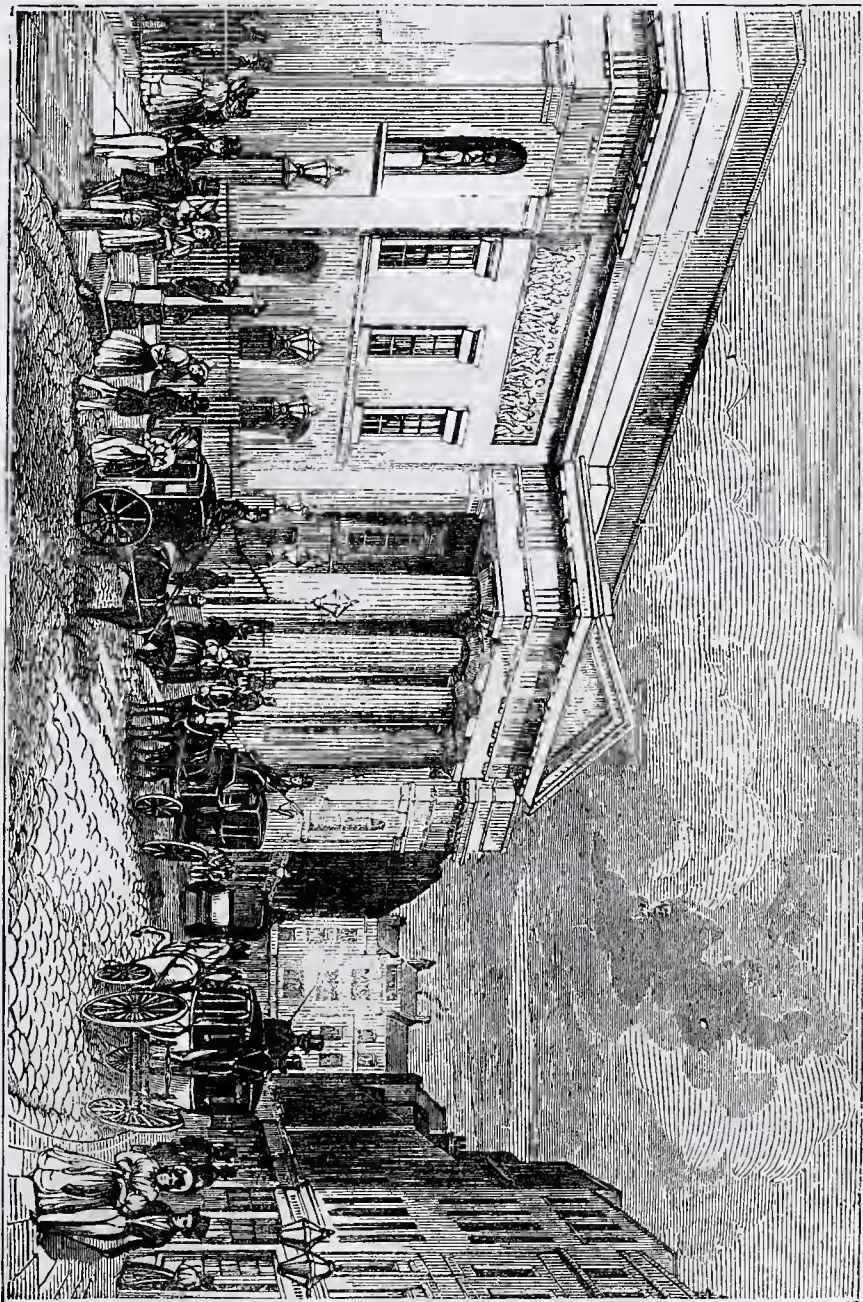
The Italian opera was established in London about the commencement of last century. It had for a considerable time but a struggling kind of existence, but from the period of Handel’s management became a permanent portion of London amusements. When the original house was erected by Sir John Vanbrugh, it stood almost in the fields. That house was destroyed by fire in 1789, and the present building was soon after erected: but the exterior colonnade, &c., was not added till 1818–20. The opera-house, occupying the corner of the Haymarket and Pall Mall, was the most westerly theatre of London until the erection, about twelve years ago, of Mr. Braham’s handsome theatre in King street, between St. James’s square and St. James’s street. Almost every reader is aware that the Italian opera-house is the chief resort of the fashionable world of London; the admission to the gallery is five shillings, and half-a-guinea to the pit.

On the opposite side of the Haymarket from the opera-house is the Haymarket theatre. The present building is the third that has been built on the same site. The Haymarket theatre has been long a favorite; and as the greater number of the London theatres have each a distinctive character as to the kind and quality of the performances, so the Haymarket is particularly noted for its comedies.

Passing along the Strand, we have the Adelphi on the north side and the Strand theatre on the south. The Adelphi is a small and not a very convenient theatre; but when open during the winter is crowded every night. Its characteristics are spectacles, the story and dialogue of which are never over-charged with meaning, but combined with really exquisite pictorial scenery, and burlettas and farces whose broad and sometimes coarse humor throws the audience into fits of laughter.

Turning up the new street which leads from the Strand, opposite Wellington street and Waterloo bridge, we pass the new building of the English opera-house. The original house called the Lyceum met with the fate of most theatres, in being destroyed by fire, in 1829. Not very far from it are the two patent theatres, Drury lane and Covent garden; and in Wych street, which continues Drury lane to the Strand, is the Olympic, which, for several years, was managed by Madame Vestris. Thus within a space which might be walked over in twenty minutes or half an hour, are nine of the eighteen London theatres, all of them the largest or the most fashionably attended of any in the metropolis. In the early part of the year, when they are nearly all open at the same time, the crowd and bustle, the blaze of light from open shops, the rattling of carriages and cabriolets, make twelve o’clock at night in this quarter of London appear as animated as twelve or three o’clock in the “city” during the day.

Formerly, when the number of theatres in London was more limited than at present, there were many of those suburban places of amusement, of which Vauxhall gardens and White Conduit house are the most conspicuous remaining. The virtues of mineral wells, or spas, as they were termed, were in high repute during the last century; and when one was discovered in the neighborhood of London, it was sure to be enclosed, and the public were tempted to visit the place by the attrac-



Covent Garden Theatre.

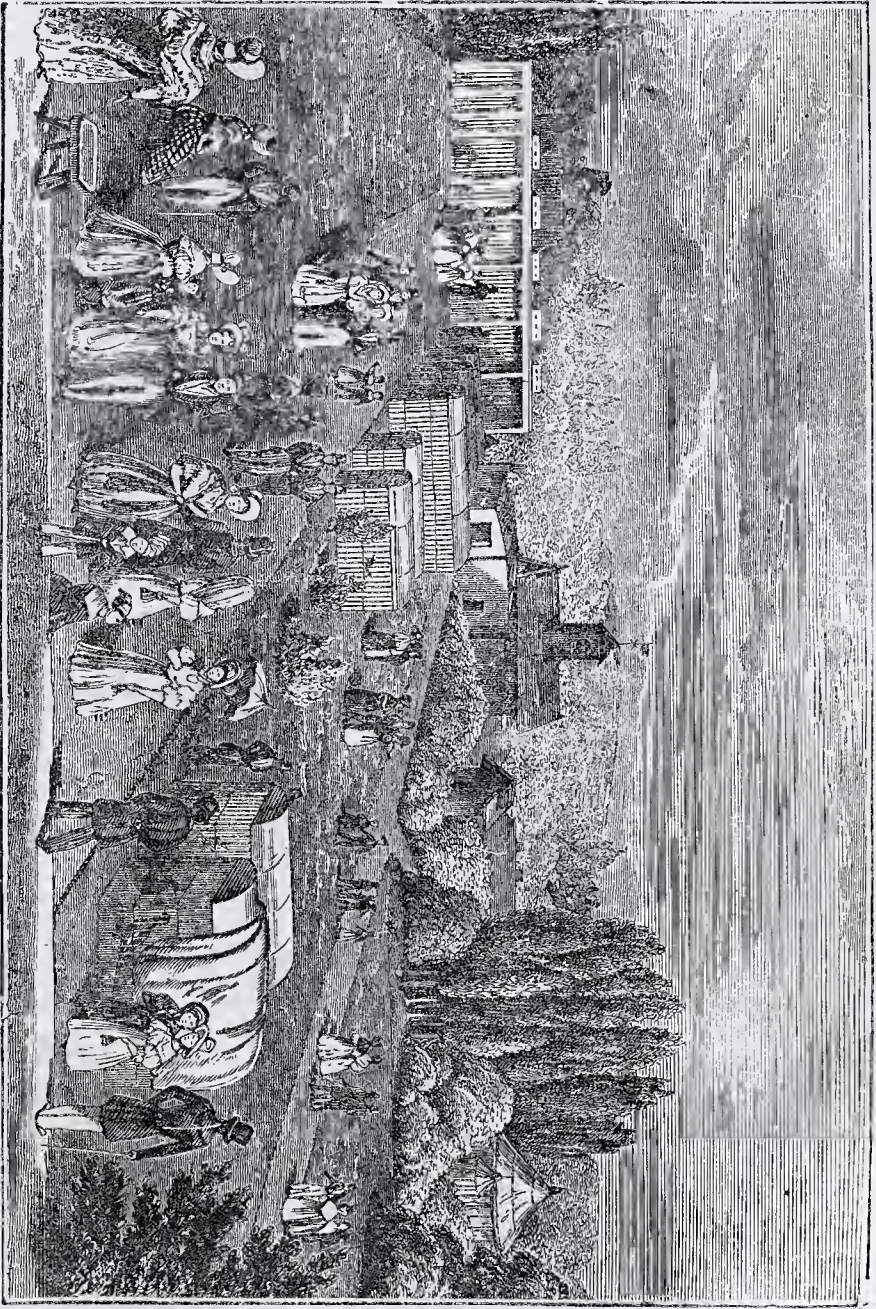
tions of music, amusements, and company. Dr. Johnson was a visiter of Ranelagh gardens, once a very fashionable place of resort. Islington spa, or New Tunbridge wells, was formerly visited by crowds, not for the water but the dancing—the well still exists, little known even to the residents in its neighborhood. The proprietor of Lambeth wells, anxious to attract popular favor, advertised, at one time, a “grinning match;” the successful competitor in the art of making hideous faces was rewarded with a gold-laced hat. Mary-le-bone gardens, which were situated about the north end of Harley street, drew crowds to its burlettas, illuminations, burning mountains, and representations of the boulevards of Paris. At one time the proprietors announced a splendid *fête champêtre*, and not having adorned the place to the satisfaction of the audience, the latter determined to have their money’s worth of amusement, and set to work to demolish stage, bowers, lamps, ornaments, and all. At the first opening of Vauxhall gardens in 1732, there were a hundred armed soldiers to preserve the peace.

The taste for this kind of amusement is greatly on the decline. Vauxhall gardens are still very well frequented—but the illuminated walks are no longer thronged by the noble and fashionable. The repeated ascents of the “monster” balloon have been a new source of attraction, but even that has been losing its novelty, for latterly the gardens were but indifferently attended on the days when the balloon was announced to ascend. White Conduit house was never, like Vauxhall, a “fashionable” resort; but from a comparatively early period was a favorite with the middle and working classes. It is both a summer and winter house: in summer the gardens are laid out and attended, much in the same way as those of Vauxhall, but not so brilliantly. The walks are lighted with colored lamps; stages are erected on which pantomimes and concerts are performed; and the evening’s amusements usually conclude with the ascent of a person on a tight-rope, amid a shower of fireworks. Here, also, as at Vauxhall, there are complaints of a great falling off in the numbers that used to attend. In winter the gardens are closed; but the house, which is large and spacious, is open for concert performances, and is not unfrequently used for public dinners and meetings.

There are a considerable number of taverns in London which have music-rooms connected with them, where concerts are performed. The chief attraction in these concerts are the comic songs, as they are called; and here we may remark that there is yet room for considerable improvement in the taste of a large portion of the working people of London. He must be a miserable cynic who begrudges them some amusement after their day’s toil; but many of those comic songs, the singing of which sometimes convulses an audience with laughter, are the most contemptibly-ridiculous compositions that can well be imagined. There is neither humor nor meaning in them, their chief point usually lying in a monstrous absurdity destitute of fancy, or a coarse allusion as destitute of wit.

Within these twenty years past, changes, as pleasant to contemplate as they are extraordinary, have taken place in the nature of some of the amusements provided for the people of London. Twenty years ago there stood in the Strand a clumsy, awkward building—Exeter ’change—the lower part of which was a kind of bazar, the upper a menagerie. This menagerie, and the one in the Tower—both of them very unsuitable repositories—were all of which the citizens of London could boast as living studies of natural history, at a time when the *Jardin des Plantes* of Paris, under the superintendence of Cuvier’s master-mind, constituted at once an amusement and a fund of instruction to a vast population. The English are fast wiping away the reproach. On the north and south of London are two zoological gardens.

The zoological gardens in the Regent’s park, for picturesque beauty, far surpass the *Jardin des Plantes* of Paris. They lie on the northwest extremity of London, and in its finest suburban quarter. The gardens are extensive, and their own attractions are heightened by the neighboring amphitheatre of the Highgate and Hampstead hills. “As we walk along the terrace,” says an article in the “Quarterly Review,” “commanding one of the finest suburban views to be anywhere seen, let us pause for a moment while ‘the sweet south’ is wafted over the flowery bank musical with bees, whose hum is mingled with the distant roar of the great city. Look at the richness and beauty of the scene! We do not set ourselves up as apologists of Nash, who had his faults; but let his enemies—ay, and his friends too, for there are many that worshipped him when living; who do not spare his memory now that he is laid in the narrow house—say what they will, if Nash had never done anything



Zoological Gardens, Regent's Park.

beyond laying out St. James's park and the picturesque ground before us, he would, in our opinion, have atoned for a multitude of sins."

The engraving of Regent's park, accompanying this article, will give the reader who has not seen the gardens an idea of the manner in which a small portion is laid out. The hut was formerly called the Llama hut, but is now appropriated to the camels; the cages, behind which the bear is seen on the pole, are devoted to carnivora. A part of the gardens is separated from the main portion by the road which runs round the Regent's park: the communication is maintained by a tunnel, which is itself an ornamental object.

The Surrey zoological gardens, as the name indicates, lie on the south side of the river Thames, about a mile and a half from Blackfriars bridge. The proprietor of Exeter 'change collection removed his menagerie to these gardens in 1831, having for a short time occupied the King's Mews at Charing Cross, the site of which is now covered by the National Gallery. The Surrey gardens cover a space of about fifteen acres, and are laid out in a manner which reflects great credit on the proprietor. The principal building is a glazed circular erection, three hundred feet in diameter, devoted to beasts, birds, and plants. The carnivora thrive better in the Surrey gardens than in those of the Regent's park; the "Quarterly Review" hints that the "London clay" is probably the cause—the Regent's-park gardens, though verdant and blooming in spring and summer, being damp in winter. But this very building of which we are speaking, in the Surrey gardens, is as likely as anything to be a prime cause of the animals being kept in better health; and it has also the advantage of enabling visitors to survey the animals with comfort at any period of the year. It seems that the terms on which the ground of the Regent's-park gardens are held of the crown forbid the erection of such buildings as that in the Surrey gardens.

Besides the attraction of the menagerie, the Surrey gardens have frequent floral exhibitions, balloon-ascents, imitations of an eruption of Mount Vesuvius, &c., to draw visitors in the summer months. Speaking generally—for numbers of all classes visit both sets of gardens—the Regent's-park gardens are more frequented by what are called fashionable people than those of the Surrey.

The National Gallery is an establishment of very recent origin, having been opened for public inspection in May, 1824. It then consisted of only about forty pictures, which were purchased, by order of his majesty, for forty thousand pounds of the executors of the late Mr. Angerstein; but it has since been greatly increased by the liberality of Sir G. Beaumont, who has presented his splendid collection to the nation. The British Institution and several private gentlemen have also contributed pictures, and others have been purchased by parliament. Among the paintings which compose this gallery are the following beautiful specimens:—

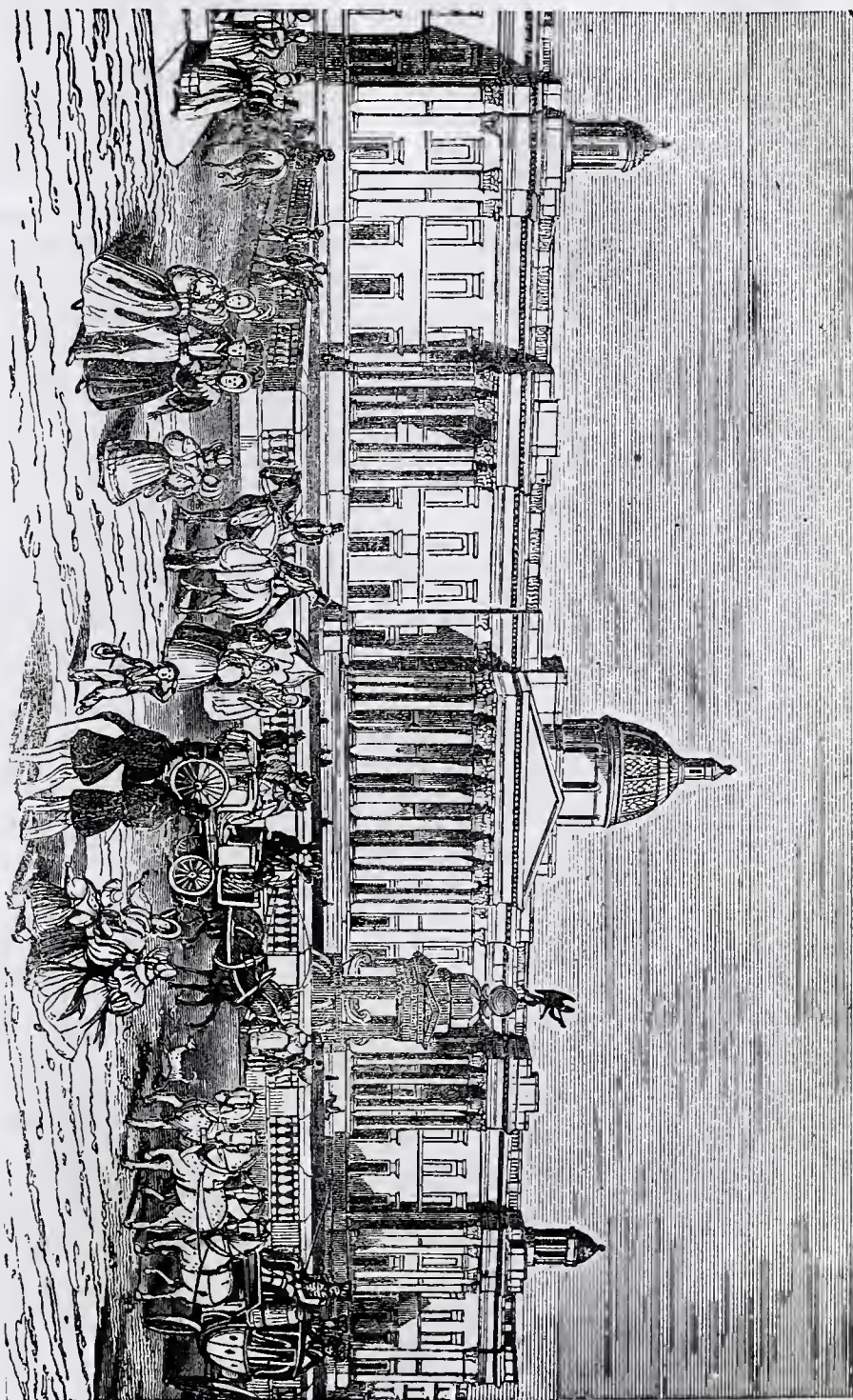
Christ Raising Lazarus, by Sebastian del Piombo; Village Festival and Blind Fiddler, by Wilkie; Christ Healing the Sick in the Temple, by West; Vision of St. Jerome, by Parmegiano; Communion of St. Nicholas, by Paul Veronese; Marriage à la Mode, and Portrait of Himself, by Hogarth; Watering-Place, by Gainsborough; Virgin and Child, by Correggio; Bacchus and Ariadne, by Titian; Rape of the Sabinæ, and a grand Landscape, by Rubens; Julius II., by Raphael; Gevartius, by Vandyke; Woman taken in Adultery, and Portrait, by Rembrandt.

There are also pictures by Cuypp, A. Carracci, Claude, G. Poussin, N. Poussin, Domenichino, Sir J. Reynolds, Canaletti, Murillo, Velasquez, &c., &c.

The Tower of London is situated on the north bank of the Thames, at the extremity of the city. The antiquity of the building has been a subject of much inquiry and discussion; but the present fortress is generally believed to have been built by William I., at the commencement of his reign, and strongly garrisoned with Normans, to secure the allegiance of his new subjects; although it appears, from an ingot and three golden coins (one of the Emperor Honorius and the others of Arcadius), found here in 1777, that the Romans had a fort on this spot.

The Tower is governed by the constable of the Tower, who at coronations and other state ceremonies has the custody of the regalia.

The principal entrance is on the west, and is wide enough to admit a carriage. It consists of two gates on the outside of the ditch, a stone bridge built over it, and a gate within it. The gates are opened and shut with great ceremony; a yeoman porter, sergeant, and six men, being employed to fetch the keys, which are kept during the day at the warder's hall, but deposited every night at the governor's house.



National Gallery.

The Tower is separated from the Thames by a platform, and by part of the ditch. At each extremity of the platform are passages to Tower-Hill, and near that to the east a place for proving muskets. The ditch, of very considerable width and depth, proceeds northward on each side of the fortress, nearly in a parallel line, and meets in a semicircle; the slope is faced with brick, and the great wall of the Tower has been repaired with that material so frequently, that it might be disputed whether any part of it but the turrets had ever been stone. Cannon are planted at intervals round the line, and command every avenue leading to Tower-Hill. The ditch is very much neglected, and contains but little water. The interior of the wall is lined with houses, to the evident injury of the place as a fortress. If heavy cannon were brought against the Tower, the lines would not be tenable one quarter of an hour.

The space enclosed by the walls measures twelve acres five roods, and the circumference on the outside of the ditch is three thousand one hundred and fifty-six feet. On the south side of the Tower is an arch, called the "Traitor's Gate," through which state prisoners were formerly brought from the river. Over this is the infirmary, and the works by which the place is supplied with water. Near the Traitor's Gate is the "Bloody Tower," in which it is supposed the two young princes, Edward V. and his brother, were smothered by order of Richard III. In the southeast angle of the enclosure were the royal apartments, for the Tower was a palace for nearly five hundred years, and only ceased to be so on the accession of Queen Elizabeth.

The principal buildings within the walls are the Church, the White Tower, the Old Mint, the Record Office, the Jewel Office, the Horse Armory, the Grand Storehouse (in which is the Small Armory), the Lion's Tower, containing the menagerie, and the Beauchamp Tower.

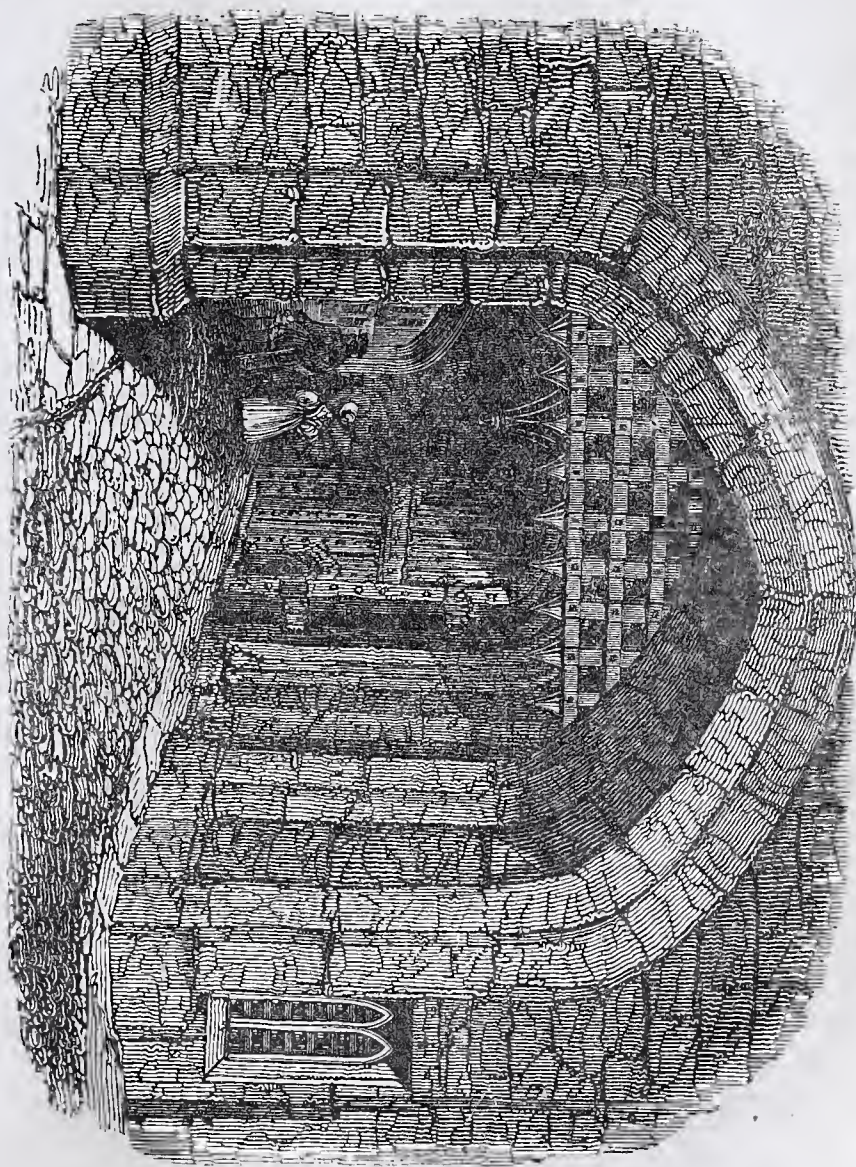
The Church, called St. Peter in Vincula, is only remarkable as the depository of the headless bodies of numerous illustrious personages who suffered either in the Tower or on the adjacent hill. Among these may be mentioned Fisher, bishop of Rochester, executed 1535; Bullen, Lord Rochford, 1536; Anna Boleyn, or Bullen, 1536; Thomas Cromwell, the favorite of Henry VIII., 1540; Catherine Howard, 1541; Seymour, duke of Somerset, 1552; Dudley, duke of Northumberland, 1553; and Scott, duke of Monmouth, 1685.

The White Tower is a large, square, irregular building, erected in 1070, by Gundulph, bishop of Rochester. The walls, which are eleven feet thick, have a winding staircase continued along two of the sides, like that in Dover castle. The building consists of three lofty stories, under which are commodious vaults, and the top is covered with flat leads, whence there is an extensive prospect. On the first story are two fine rooms, one of which contains the Sea Armory, consisting of muskets for the sea service, and other warlike implements of every description. Here, likewise, is the Volunteer Armory, for thirty thousand men. At the top of the building is a reservoir, for supplying the garrison with water in case of necessity. Within the White Tower is the ancient chapel of St. John, originally used by the English monarchs. The architecture is Saxon, and it is considered a perfect building of its kind. It is of an oblong form, rounded at the eastern end; on each side are five short round pillars, with large squared capitals, curiously sculptured, and having a cross on each. This chapel now forms a part of the Record Office, and is filled with parchments.

South of the White Tower is the Modelling Room, in which are curious models of Gibraltar and other places; but no strangers are permitted to see them. The Parade, near the White Tower, is much frequented as a promenade on Sundays, when the Tower is open to the public.

The office of the keeper of the records is adorned with a finely-carved stone door-case. All the rolls, from the time of King John to the beginning of the reign of Richard III., are deposited in fifty-six presses at this office. Those since that period are kept at the Rolls-Chapel, Chancery lane. The price of a search is ten shillings and six pence sterling, for which you may pursue one subject a year. In the Wakefield Tower, which forms part of the Record Office, is a fine octagonal room, where tradition asserts Henry VI. was murdered. This tower derived its name from having been the place of confinement for the prisoners taken at the battle of Wakefield.

The Jewel Office is a dark and strong stone room, in which are kept the crown jewels, or regalia. The imperial crown, which is enriched with precious stones of every description, was newly modelled for the coronation of his majesty William IV., in 1821. Here, likewise, are preserved the other emblems of royalty used at the coronation of English sovereigns, such as the golden orb, the golden sceptre and its



Gateway of the Bloody Tower.

cross, the sceptre with the dove, St. Edward's staff, state saltcellar, curtana, or sword of mercy, golden spurs, armilla or bracelets, ampulla or golden eagle, and the golden spoon. The visiter is likewise shown the silver font used at the baptism of the royal family, the state crown worn by the sovereign in parliament, and a large collection of ancient plate.

The Horse Armory is a plain brick building east of the White Tower. Near the entrance is shown a model of Sir Thomas Loombe's machine for making organzine, or thrown silk; it contains twenty-six thousand five hundred and eighty-six wheels, and ninety-seven thousand seven hundred and forty-six movements, which work ninety-three thousand seven hundred and twenty-six yards of silk thread every time the wheel goes round, and this revolution is performed three times a minute. This apartment is adorned with suits of armor of almost every description, but the most striking are the effigies of the English kings on horseback, armed cap-à-pie. These have been recently arranged under the direction of Dr. Meyrick. Several of the cuirasses and helmets taken at Waterloo are also kept here, together with a droll figure of Henry VIII.'s jester, Will Somers; an Indian suit of armor, composed of iron quills; and the armor of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster.

The Grand Storehouse is a noble edifice, north of White Tower, extending about three hundred and forty-five feet in length and sixty in breadth. It is composed of brick and stone, and on the north side is a stately doorcase, adorned with four columns, an entablature and pediment of the Doric order. Under the pediment are the king's arms, with carved trophy-work, executed by Gibbons. This noble edifice was begun by James II., and finished by William III. The upper story is occupied by the Small Armory, containing arms for about two hundred thousand men, all kept bright and clean, and disposed in various tasteful forms, representing the sun, the royal arms, Medusa's head, &c.

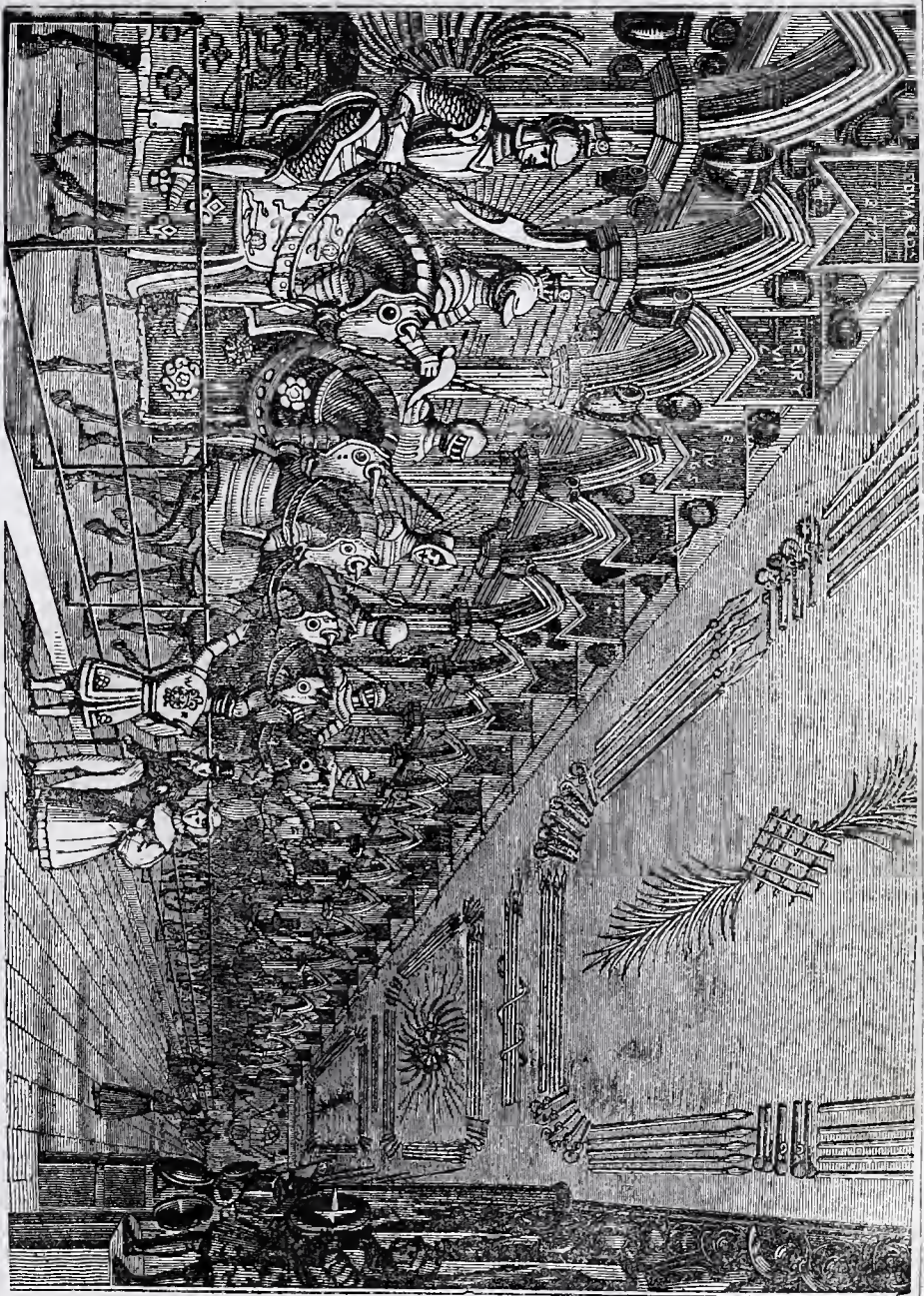
Here also are preserved eight Maltese flags, and a curious cannon, taken from Malta by the French, and retaken by the English; the earl of Mar's elegant shield and carbine; the sword carried before the Pretender, when proclaimed king in Scotland; the highlander's axe with which Colonel Gardiner was killed at Preston-pans, and numerous curiosities of a similar description. Beneath the small armory, where the royal artillery was formerly arranged, are several pieces of cannon curiously carved, and an immense number of musket-barrels piled up in boxes.

The Spanish armory is principally occupied by the trophies taken from the Spanish armada, such as Spanish thumb-screws, battle-axes, cravats, lances, spears, boarding-pikes, &c. Here also are shown, among other curiosities, a representation of Queen Elizabeth in armor; the axe which severed the head of Anna Boleyn, as well as that of the earl of Essex; the invincible banner taken from the Spanish armada; a wooden cannon used by Henry VIII. at the siege of Boulogne: ten pieces of cannon presented to Charles II., when a child, to assist him in his military studies; a piece of a scythe taken at the battle of Sedgmoor, and Henry VIII.'s walking-staff, with which it is said he perambulated the streets of London, to see that his constables performed their duty.

The Beauchamp tower is noted for the illustrious personages formerly confined within its walls. Among them were the ill-fated Anna Boleyn, and the good and accomplished Lady Jane Grey. The former is said to have written her memorable letter to Henry VIII. in the apartment called the Mess-house.

The Lion's tower, built by Edward IV., was originally called the Bulwark, but received its present name from being occupied as the menagerie. It is situated on the right of the inner entrance to the Tower; but the animals kept here are not very numerous.

The British museum, that great receptacle of valuable curiosities, may, with truth, be said to have been founded by Sir Hans Sloane; but it would be injustice in thus mentioning Sir Hans, not to advert to a predecessor of still greater liberality, who gave his invaluable collection to the public; this was Sir Robert Cotton. The books and other articles which were offered to the public by Sir Hans Sloane for 20,000*l.*, and which had cost him 50,000*l.*, being purchased by the government, it was found necessary to provide a place for their reception. Fortunately, Montagu-house, one of the largest mansions in the metropolis, was obtained, in 1753, and hence the origin of this celebrated museum, which has been gradually increased by gifts, bequests, and purchases of every species of curiosity, in animals, vegetables, fossils, minerals, sculptures, books, MSS., &c., &c. The trustees who conduct the con-



Interior of the Horse Armory.

cerns of the institution, are uniformly men of talent, rank, and fortune; and every endeavor is made to forward its interests, and to promote the honor of the nation.

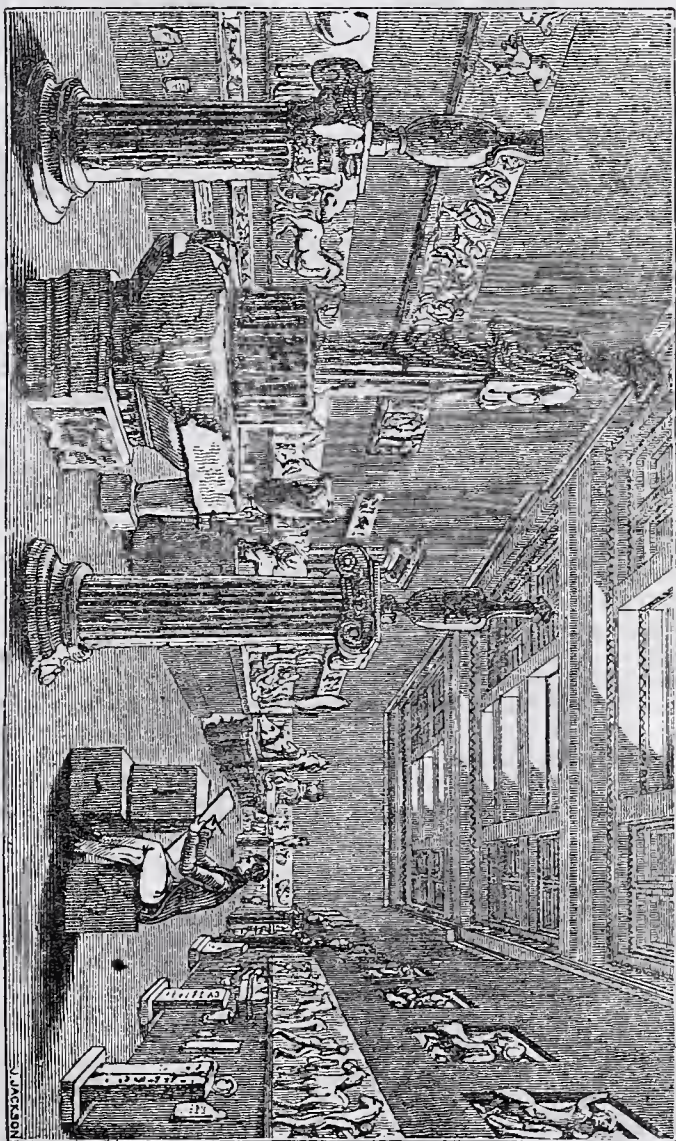
It is impossible to give an account of all the objects of literature and art in this repository, but a slight enumeration of some of the principal collections, and the means by which they were accumulated, may be attempted. The *Harleian Library* contains 7,000 manuscripts, bought by the Right Honorable Secretary Harley, and the noble collection of Sir Simon D'Ewes, among which are numerous ancient manuscripts, books, charters, &c., some in Saxon, others of high antiquity, which throw great light on history. Here, likewise is deposited John Stowe's collection, as well as several original leger-books, coucher-books, and cartularies of monasteries in this kingdom, as Bury St. Edmond's, St. Alban's, and other religious houses. In 1767, an act was passed to enable the trustees to sell or exchange any duplicates of books, medals, coins, &c., and to purchase others in their places. In 1772, the house of commons voted 8,410*l.* for purchasing antiquities brought from Italy, and 840*l.* to provide a proper receptacle for them; and in 1804, 16,000*l.* for building additional galleries and apartments for Egyptian and other articles. One of the first gifts to the public after the establishment of the institution, was the legacy of Colonel Lethieullier, consisting of a curious collection of Egyptian antiquities; to which Pitt Lethieullier, Esq., nephew to the colonel, added several others, collected by himself during his residence at Grand Cairo. As an addition to the Cotton library, Mrs. Maddox, relict of the late Mr. Maddox, historiographer royal, left by her will her husband's large and valuable collection of manuscripts, which had engaged his attention many years. Major Edwards bequeathed many books; together with 7,000*l.* after the decease of Elizabeth Mills; and the trustees obtained the collections of Dr. Birch. In 1760, Mr. Da Costa presented several Hebrew manuscripts; and since that period numberless gifts have been made, one of the principal of which was that of the Rev. D. Cracherode, of the *Principes Editiones* of the Greek and Roman classics.

The *Cottonian Library* was collected by the indefatigable exertions and excellent judgment of Sir Robert Bruce Cotton, who was born in 1570, and died in 1662. This inestimable treasury of knowledge, after being with difficulty rescued from the fury of the republicans during the interregnum, was secured to the public in 1700, by a statute entitled "An act for the better settling and preserving the library kept in the house at Westminster, called Cotton-house, in the name and family of the Cottons, for the benefit of the public." The library was removed in 1712, to Essex-house, Essex street, Strand, but for what precise reason is not known, where it continued till 1730. From this place it was subsequently conveyed to a house in Little Dean's yard, Westminster, purchased by the crown of Lord Ashburnham. On the 23d of October, 1731, a conflagration destroyed a portion of the library, but the remaining books were deposited in the dormitory of the Westminster school, whence they were removed to their present situation. The collection of Sir Hans Sloane was made by that excellent physician during the course of an active life, protracted to the term of ninety-one years, spent in the pursuit of knowledge, and the practice of benevolence; and it was augmented by a collection bequeathed to him by W. Courteen, Esq. The *King's Libraries* consist of printed books and manuscripts, collected during several centuries, and munificently bestowed upon the public by George III., whose name is inscribed on many of them.

The British museum also received a considerable accession by the liberality of his majesty George IV., who presented the library collected by George III., at Buckingham-house, for the use of the public.

To these collections have been added the *Elgin marbles*, obtained by Lord Elgin, during his mission to the Ottoman Porte, and purchased by government for 35,000*l.* The marbles are considered by eminent artists to be in the very first class of ancient art, some placing them a little above, and others but a very little below, the Apollo Belvidere, the Laocoon, and the Torso of the Belvidere. They suppose them to have formed part of the original building of the Parthenon, and to have been executed from designs by Phidias.

Dr. Burney's rare and classical library was purchased by government for 13,500*l.* Among the printed books, the whole number of which is from 13,000 to 14,000 volumes, the most distinguished portion consists of the collection of Greek dramatic authors, which are arranged so as to present every diversity of text and commentary at one view; each play being bound up singly, and in so complete but expensive a



Gallery of Athenian Antiquities, in the British Museum.

manner, that it occasioned the sacrifice of two copies of every edition, and in some instances of rare editions. Among the manuscripts of classical and other ancient authors, are Homer's *Iliad*, formerly belonging to Mr. Townley, considered superior to any other that exists, at least in England; two copies of the series of Greek orators, deemed the most important ever introduced into this country, because they supply more *lacunæ* than any other manuscripts, two beautiful copies of the Greek gospels of the tenth and twelfth centuries; the geography of Ptolemy, &c. Another part of this collection comprises a numerous and rare series of newspapers, from 1603 to the present time, amounting in the whole to 7,000 volumes, which is more ample than any other extant. There is also a collection of between three hundred and four hundred volumes in quarto, containing materials for a *history of the stage*, from 1600 to the present time, and particulars relating to the biography of actors, and persons connected with the stage.

The building of the British museum forms a square, enclosed by a high brick wall, which excludes the house from view; at each corner is a turret; and over the great Ionic arch of the entrance there is a large and handsome cupola. On entering the gate of the museum, a spacious quadrangle presents itself with an Ionic colonade, on the south side, and the main building on the north. The building measures 216 feet in length, and 57 in height to the top of the cornice. The two wings are occupied by the officers. The architect, Peter Paget, a native of Marseilles, and an artist of great eminence in his time, was sent over by Ralph, first duke of Montagu, for the sole purpose of constructing this splendid mansion.

The *reading-room* is surrounded with shelves of books, secured by wire. Catalogues are placed on shelves within the room, which the reader consults at his pleasure, writes his notes from them, pulls the bell-rope near the door, a messenger immediately obeys the summons, and in as short a time as possible returns with the wished-for book.

The Royal Academy now occupies its share of the building at Charing Cross, named the National Gallery. The annual exhibition commences in May, and is always very attractive: one shilling is charged for admission.

Pall Mall and its neighborhood is a chief place for pictorial exhibitions. The British Institution is in Pall Mall; and societies and individuals have, generally in the spring of the year, exhibitions of pictures, panoramas, &c., &c.

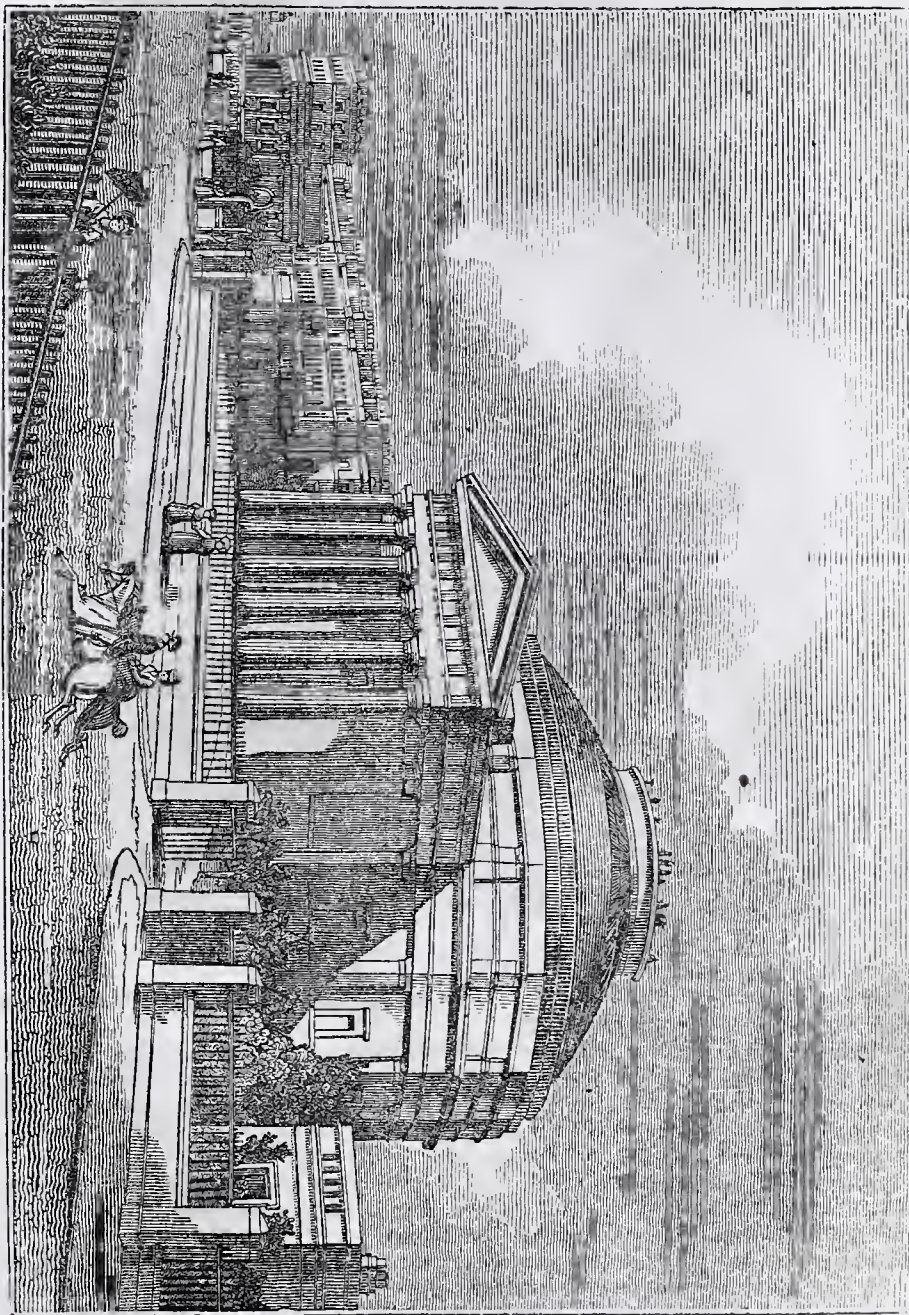
We have only space to mention two or three permanent exhibitions: to attempt an enumeration of the many which solicit the patronage of the curious, and of all who have time and money to spare, in such a place as London, would be unsatisfactory. The Society for the Encouragement of Arts have their collection in the Adelphi; the Gallery of Practical Science is in the Strand; and the Colosseum and the Diorama are in the Regent's park. The Colosseum is a building of great size, erected in imitation of the Pantheon at Rome: it contains a variety of exhibitions—one of which is the well-known panorama of London, painted on forty thousand feet of canvass.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

PUBLIC WORSHIP.

LONDON abounds with churches, many of them distinguished for architectural beauty. We shall proceed to describe a few of the more remarkable ones.

Trinity church, Blackheath hill, is in the earlier pointed style. Some difficulties in the site have been turned to good account by the architect, who has rendered the disposition and general combination of the details pleasing and picturesque. Although inclining considerably toward the south, the end of the building facing the road may be called the east, consequently is the one which, in conformity with custom, is appropriated to the altar; while, as the main street or road immediately passes it, it was almost matter of necessity that the principal entrances should be



The Colosseum.

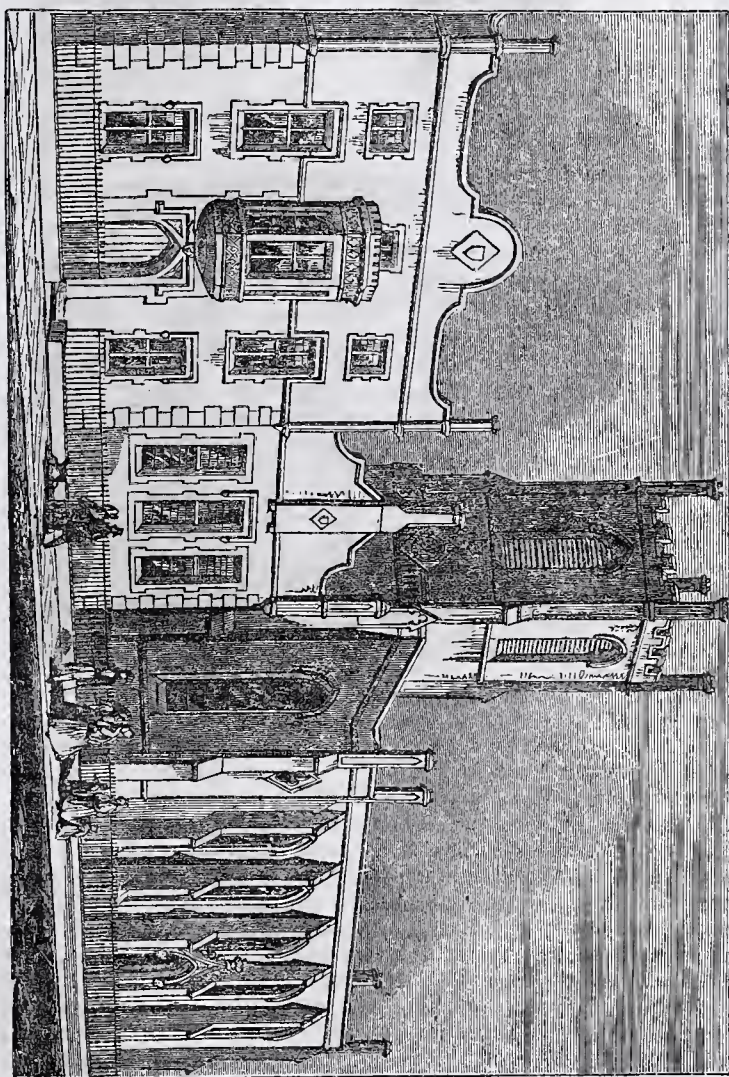


Trinity Church, Blackheath Hill.

toward the latter. Accommodation is provided for twelve hundred persons, at a cost of four thousand four hundred pounds.

St. Peter's church was opened only a few years since. It presents itself suddenly on turning the corner of a narrow and crooked street between Blackfriars bridge and Southwark bridge, and, with the parsonage-house and schools, presents a pleasing and striking architectural group. Only a part of the school building is shown in the cut. The air of decency and simplicity which characterizes the exterior of the church is not preserved in the interior, which is bald and plain in the extreme, and dismal without being at all solemn. The church measures internally eighty feet by forty-six, and affords room for twelve hundred sittings.

Any one who has made a trip by water to Richmond must have observed Chelsea church, an ancient-looking building of red brick, rising, with its tower, close by the side of the river, a few hundred yards below Battersea bridge. Its form, independently of the tower, is nearly a square, of inconsiderable dimensions. The first church of which this spot was the site is supposed to have been erected in the reign of Edward II., or about the beginning of the fourteenth century. The present church, however, is no older than the year 1667; although it is to be considered, in some degree, rather as the former edifice repaired and enlarged than as altogether a new structure.



St. Peter's Church, Park Street, Southwark.

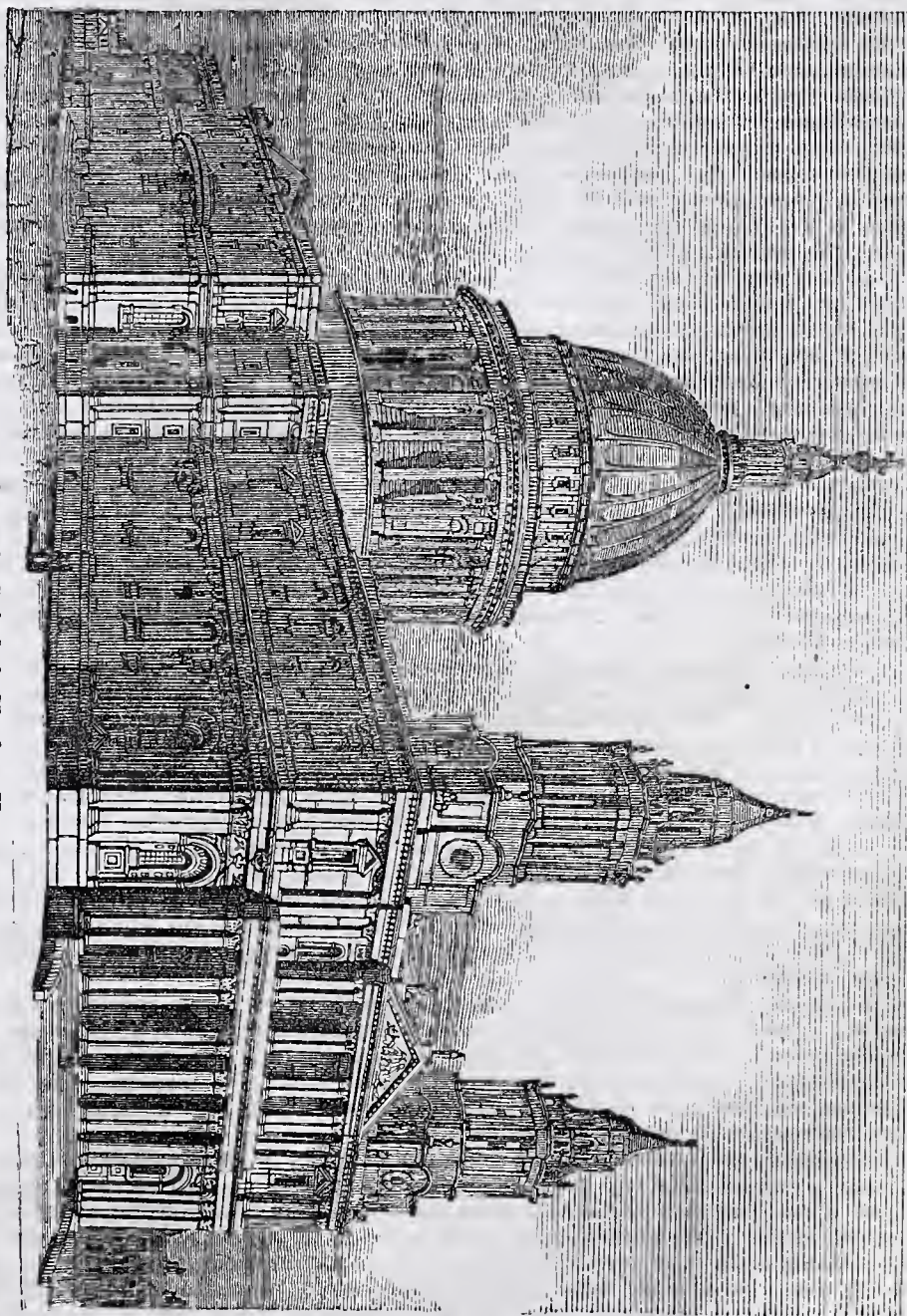


Chelsea Church, from the River.

The chief interest which it possesses is derived from the numerous monuments which it contains; and a good many of these are older than the date we have just mentioned, and appear still to retain the positions which they occupied on the walls of the former church. The principal alteration seems to have consisted in extending the aisles a few yards farther west. The walls were also raised, and the old tower was pulled down to the foundation. Of the monuments, the one which every visitor naturally feels inclined first to examine is that of Sir Thomas More. It stands on the south wall, near the east end, and consists of an arched recess, very plainly decorated with the crest and armorial bearings of the deceased, under which is a black marble slab, bearing a long Latin inscription.

St. Paul's cathedral is built of Portland stone, in the form of a cross, and is divided, by two rows of massy pillars, into a nave and side-aisles. At the extremities of the principal transept are also semicircular projections, for porticoes: and at the angles of the cross are square projections, which, besides containing staircases, vestries, &c., serve as immense buttresses to the dome, which rises from the intersection of the nave and transept.

The west front toward Ludgate street is extremely noble. The elevated portico forming the grand entrance consists of twelve Corinthian columns, with an upper portico of eight columns in the composite order, supporting a triangular pediment. The entablature represents the history of St. Paul's conversion in basso relievo, by Francis Bird. On the centre of the pediment is a statue of St. Paul, and at the sides are statues of St. James, St. Peter, and the four evangelists. The whole rests on an elevated base, the ascent to which is formed by twenty-two steps of black marble. At the northwest and southwest angles of the cathedral, two elegant tur-



St. Paul's Cathedral—Northern View.

rets are erected, each terminating in a dome ornamented with a gilt pine-apple. The south turret contains the clock; the north turret the belfry.

A semicircular portico, consisting of a dome supported by six Corinthian columns, leads to the great north door, or entrance to the transept, over which is an entablature containing the royal arms supported by angels. The south front of the cathedral corresponds with the north, excepting the entablature, which represents a phoenix rising from the flames; the performance of Gabriel Cibber. Underneath is the expressive word *Resurgam*. The east end of the church is semicircular; it is ornamented with a variety of fine sculpture, particularly the cipher W. R. within a compartment of palm branches, surmounted by an imperial crown, in honor of the then reigning sovereign, King William III. The exterior of the walls consist of rustic work ornamented with two rows of pilasters, the lower of the Corinthian, and the other of the Composite order. The dome, or cupola, rises in beautiful and majestic proportion, where the great lines of the cross intersect each other. The dome is terminated by a lantern and globe; and on the summit of the whole is placed the emblem of the Christian faith.

The cathedral is surrounded by a handsome cast-iron balustrade, which weighs about two hundred tons, and cost upward of 11,000*l.*: this rests on a dwarf stone wall, and separates the churchyard from the street. Within this enclosure, facing Ludgate street, is a marble statue of Queen Anne, holding in her hands the emblems of royalty, and accompanied by figures representing Great Britain, Ireland, France, and America. It was executed by Bird. The interior of the cathedral is not so richly decorated as the exterior. The pavements consists of square slabs of black and white marble, placed alternately; and the floor of the altar is interspersed with porphyry. The flags which hang in various parts of the dome and nave are trophies of British valor. Those near the north entrance were taken from the French by Lord Howe, in 1794; and those opposite, on the right, from the Spaniards by Lord Nelson, in 1797; the Dutch flags, on the left, were taken by Lord Keith, at the Cape of Good Hope, and by Lord Duncan, at Camperdown. Over the western aisle are the flags taken by the duke of York from the French, and those captured during the American war.

A circular staircase, within the southwest pier; leads by an easy ascent to the Whispering-gallery, which encircles the lower part of the dome at the extreme edge of the cornice. From this situation, the view of the church, the cupola, and the lantern, is strikingly sublime; and here the paintings by Sir James Thornhill on the compartments of the dome are seen to the greatest advantage. These designs are illustrative of the most remarkable occurrences in St. Paul's life. His miraculous conversion near Damascus (Acts, chap ix.) St. Paul preaching before Sergius Paulus, with the divine judgment upon Elymas the sorcerer (xiii.) The reverence offered to Paul and Barnabas at Lystra, by the priests of Jupiter (xiv.) The imprisonment of Paul and Silas at Philippi, with the conversion of the jailer (xvi.) Paul preaching to the Athenians (xvii.) The magic books of the Ephesians burnt (xix.) St. Paul's defence before Agrippa and Bernice (xxiv.) His shipwreck at Melita (xxviii.)

The Whispering-gallery takes its name from the well-known reverberation of sounds; so that the softest whisper is accurately and loudly conveyed to the ear at the distance of one hundred feet, the diameter of the dome in this part. If the door be shut forcibly it produces a strong reverberation similar to thunder. The same staircase communicates with the galleries over the north and south aisles of the nave, containing the library and model-room.

The library was furnished with a collection of books by Bishop Compton, whose portrait is preserved here; but the flooring, consisting of upward of two thousand pieces of oak, seems to be pointed out as the object most deserving the attention of a casual visitor. The corresponding room in the north gallery contains a model of the beautiful altar-piece intended by the architect to ornament the east end of the church, and a large model for a building in the style of a Grecian temple. This is regarded as the design most valued by Sir Christopher Wren; but in the opinion of competent judges, we have the masterpiece of his architectural skill in this cathedral. This room contains also some of the funeral decorations used at the interment of Lord Nelson.

The clock-works are well deserving the attention of the curious: the pendulum is fourteen feet long, and the weight at the end is one hundred and twelve pounds; the

dials on the outside are regulated by a smaller one within; the length of the minute-hands on the exterior dials is eight feet, and the weight of each seventy-five pounds; the length of the hour-hands is five feet five inches, and the weight forty-four pounds each; the diameter of the dial is eighteen feet ten inches, and the length of the hour-figures two feet two and a half inches. The fine-toned bell which strikes the hours is clearly distinguishable from every other in the metropolis, and has been distinctly heard at the distance of twenty miles. It is about ten feet in diameter, and is said to weigh four and one fourth tons. This bell is tolled on the death of any member of the royal family, of the lord-mayor, bishop of London, or dean of the cathedral.

The ball and cross surmounting the lantern, re-erected in 1822, are constructed, as to outline and dimensions, on the same plan as the originals, but the interior has been much improved by the substitution of copper and gun-metal bands for those of iron. The whole height of the copper-work, which weighs above four tons, is twenty-seven feet. The iron spindle in the centre, and standards to strengthen the copper-work, weigh about three tons, forming a total weight of above seven tons. The old ball, measuring six feet two inches in diameter, was made of fourteen pieces; while the new ball, measuring six feet, and weighing about half a ton without its ornaments or standards, is constructed of only two—a fair demonstration of the improved state of science. It is capable of containing eight persons. The old ball, including the spindle, standards, &c., weighed two and a half tons, and the cross one and a half. The ascent to the ball is formed by six hundred and sixteen steps, of which the first two hundred and eighty lead to the Whispering-gallery, and the next two hundred and fifty-four to the upper gallery.

About the year 1790, a scheme was suggested, and has succeeded, to break the monotonous uniformity of the architectural masses in the interior of the cathedral by the introduction of monuments and statues in honor of the illustrious dead. The first erected was to the memory of John Howard: opened to public inspection A. D. 1796. This statue is placed near the iron gate leading to the south aisle. It is the work of the late John Bacon, R. A., and represents the philanthropist in the act of trampling upon chains and fetters, while bearing in his right hand the key of a prison, and in his left a scroll, on which is engraved, "Plan for the improvement of prisons and hospitals." The eloquent inscription was written by the late Samuel Whitbread, Esq.

The monument in memory of Nelson is executed by Flaxman: the statue of Lord Nelson, dressed in the pelisse received from the grand seignior, leans on an anchor. Beneath, on the right of the hero, Britannia directs the attention of young seamen to Nelson, their great example. The British lion on the other side guards the monument. On the cornice of the pedestal are the words "Copenhagen, Nile, Trafalgar." The figures on the pedestal represent the North sea, the German ocean, the Nile, and the Mediterranean.

The following monuments may likewise be seen here: Sir William Jones represented leaning on the Institutes of Menu, by Bacon, jun.; Earl Howe, by Flaxman; Sir Joshua Reynolds, by the same artist; Captain Hardinge, by the late C. Manning; Sir Ralph Abercrombie, by Westmacott; Lord Rodney, by C. Rossi; Captain Westcott, by Banks; Sir John Moore, by Bacon, jun.; Lord Collingwood, by Westmacott; Captain Duff, by Bacon; Captains Moss and Riou, by C. Rossi; General Dundas, by Bacon, jun.; Generals Craufurd and Mackinnon, by Bacon, jun.; Dr. Johnson, with an inscription by Dr. Parr; Marquis Cornwallis and Lord Heathfield, by Rossi; General Picton, by Gahagan; General Ponsonby, by Bailey; Captain Hutt and Captain Burgess, by Banks; General Bowes and Colonel Cadogan, by Chantrey; together with monuments of Captain Faulkner, Captain Miller, Generals Hay, Mackenzie, and Langworth. Over the entrance to the choir is a marble slab with a Latin inscription, which may be translated—"Beneath, lies Christopher Wren, builder of this church and city, who lived upward of ninety years, not for himself, but for the public benefit. Reader, do you seek for his monument?—Look around!"

Lord Nelson's perishable remains are interred in a vault under the central part of the building, and near them the remains of his friend Lord Collingwood.

Among other eminent characters whose bodies have been deposited in these vaults are—Sir Christopher Wren; Dr. Newton, bishop of Bristol; Alexander Wedderburn, earl of Rosslyn; Sir John Braithwaite; Sir Joshua Reynolds and Benjamin

West, successively presidents of the Royal Academy; James Barry, John Opie, and Henry Fuseli, painters; and John Rennie, engineer.

The crypt beneath the cathedral contains inscriptions to Sir Christopher Wren and his daughter, to Bishop Newton, the painters Barry and Opie, and other eminent persons. But the chief object of curiosity is the tomb of Nelson. In the middle avenue of the crypt, immediately beneath the centre of the dome, stands a sarcophagus of black and white marble, resting on a pedestal, on which are inscribed the words "HORATIO VISC. NELSON." The sarcophagus and pedestal were brought from Cardinal Wolsey's tomb-house at Windsor: they were prepared by the cardinal for his own entombment. Here also may be seen the celebrated figure of Dr. Donne, representing him as a corpse: it was executed in his lifetime, and was frequently the object of his contemplation.

The choir is divided from the body of the church by an organ-gallery, supported by eight Corinthian columns of black and white marble, and enriched with beautiful carving by Gibbons, whose decorative performances embellish every part of the choir. The episcopal throne near the altar is peculiarly elegant. The bishop's seat for ordinary occasions, on the south side, is distinguished by a mitre and pelican; the lord-mayor's seat, on the opposite side, has the city mace and other appropriate devices. The dean's stall, under the organ-gallery, is distinguished by a canopy, and ornamented with sculptures of fruit and flowers.

The pulpit was originally placed near the altar, opposite to the bishop's throne, but has been removed to a more central situation, for the greater convenience of the auditors. The reading-desk is supported by an eagle with expanded wings, standing on a pillar, surrounded by rails: the whole of gilt brass.

The sermons were anciently delivered in the open air, at a cross in the churchyard, as already stated; from which circumstance they are still termed Paul's-cross sermons. The preachers are nominated by the bishop of London.

The chaplain to the lord-mayor, for the time being, is the preacher on all state holydays; and on the first Sunday in Easter and Trinity terms, when the lord-mayor, aldermen, judges, and city officers, attend the cathedral church.

The choral service is performed daily in great perfection at St. Paul's. The service commences at three quarters past nine, precisely, in the morning, and at a quarter past three in the afternoon; when the solemn harmonies of Tallis, Gibbons, and Purcell, the lighter compositions of Boyce and Kent, and the sublime choruses of Handel, may be heard with the fullest effect: but the greatest treat for the admirers of sacred harmony, is the music-meeting in the month of May, for the benefit of the widows and orphans of necessitous clergymen. Handel's grand *Dettingen Te Deum*, several of his most beautiful choruses, and an appropriate anthem by Dr. Boyce, are performed by a powerful orchestra, supported by the principal gentlemen, both clerical and lay, belonging to the three choirs of St. Paul's, Westminster abbey, and the Chapel royal, who make a point of attending on this occasion, and who render their assistance gratuitously. One of the royal dukes, the lord-mayor, most of the bishops, and many other distinguished characters, attend as stewards. The doors open at ten, and divine service commences at twelve o'clock. A public rehearsal of this music always takes place a day or two before the meeting. The cathedral is likewise open for service every day, except on Sundays, at six in the morning during summer, and at seven in winter.

Another meeting, equally honorable and gratifying to the benevolence of the age, is held in the month of June, when six or eight thousand children, clothed and educated in the parochial schools, are assembled in the metropolitan church, to offer their infant homage to their Creator. A rehearsal of this meeting takes place a day or two before, when persons are admitted at 6*d.* each. Tickets for the meeting itself can only be obtained of persons who patronise the schools.

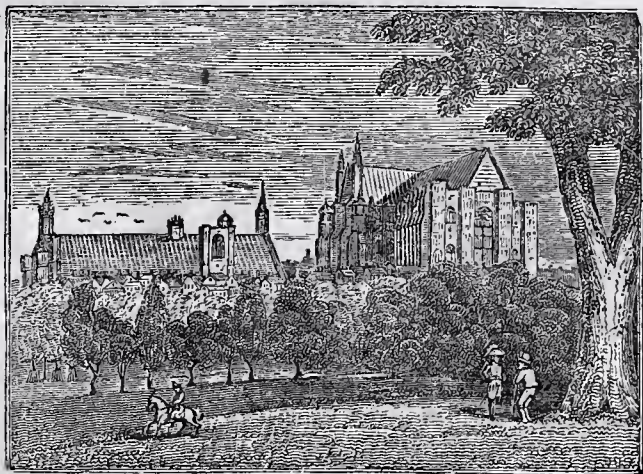
The dimensions of the cathedral are:—

Length from east to west, within the walls	-	-	-	-	-	500 feet.
Breadth of the nave and choir	-	-	-	-	-	100 "
From north to south, though the transept	-	-	-	-	-	285 "
The circuit	-	-	-	-	-	2,292 "
The height, exclusive of the dome	-	-	-	-	-	110 "
Height from the vaults to the top of the cross	-	-	-	-	-	404 "
Height from the centre of the floor to the top of the cross	-	-	-	-	-	340 "

Ground plot, 2 acres, 16 perches, 70 feet. Expense of building, £1,500,000.

Westminster abbey bears also the name of the collegiate church of St. Peter. Of the founding of this abbey on "Thorney island," there are so many miraculous stories related by monkish writers, that the recital of them now would hardly be endured. It may be presumed that both the ancient church, dedicated to St. Paul, in London, and this, dedicated to St. Peter, in Westminster, were among the earliest works of the first converts to Christianity in Britain. With their new religion, they introduced a new style of building; and their great aim seems to have been, by affecting loftiness and ornament, to bring the plain simplicity of the pagan architects into contempt. Historians, agreeably to the legend, have fixed the era of the first abbey in the sixth century, and ascribed to Sebert the honor of conducting the work, and of completing that part of it at least that now forms the east angle, which probably was all that was included in the original plan. To the reign of Edward the Confessor, the first abbey remained a monument exposed to the sacrilegious fury of the times; but by the prevailing influence of Christianity in that reign, the ruins of the ancient building were cleared away, and a most magnificent structure for that age erected in their place. In its form it bore the figure of a cross, which afterward became the pattern for cathedral building throughout the kingdom. Henry III. not only pulled down and enlarged the plan of this ancient abbey, but added a chapel, which he dedicated to the blessed Virgin; but it was not till the reign of Henry VII. that the stately and magnificent chapel, now known by his name was planned and executed.

From the death of Henry VII., till the reign of William and Mary, no care was taken to repair or preserve the ancient church. By the demands which Henry VIII. made upon it, and the ravages it sustained during the unhappy civil commotions, its ancient beauty was in a great measure destroyed; nor did their majesties restore it till it became an object of parliamentary attention, and till a considerable sum was voted for that purpose only. This vote being passed, Sir Christopher Wren was employed to decorate and give it a thorough repair, which that able architect so skillfully and faithfully executed, that the building is thought, at this day, to want none of its original strength, and to have even acquired additional majesty by two new towers, which are situated at the western entrance.

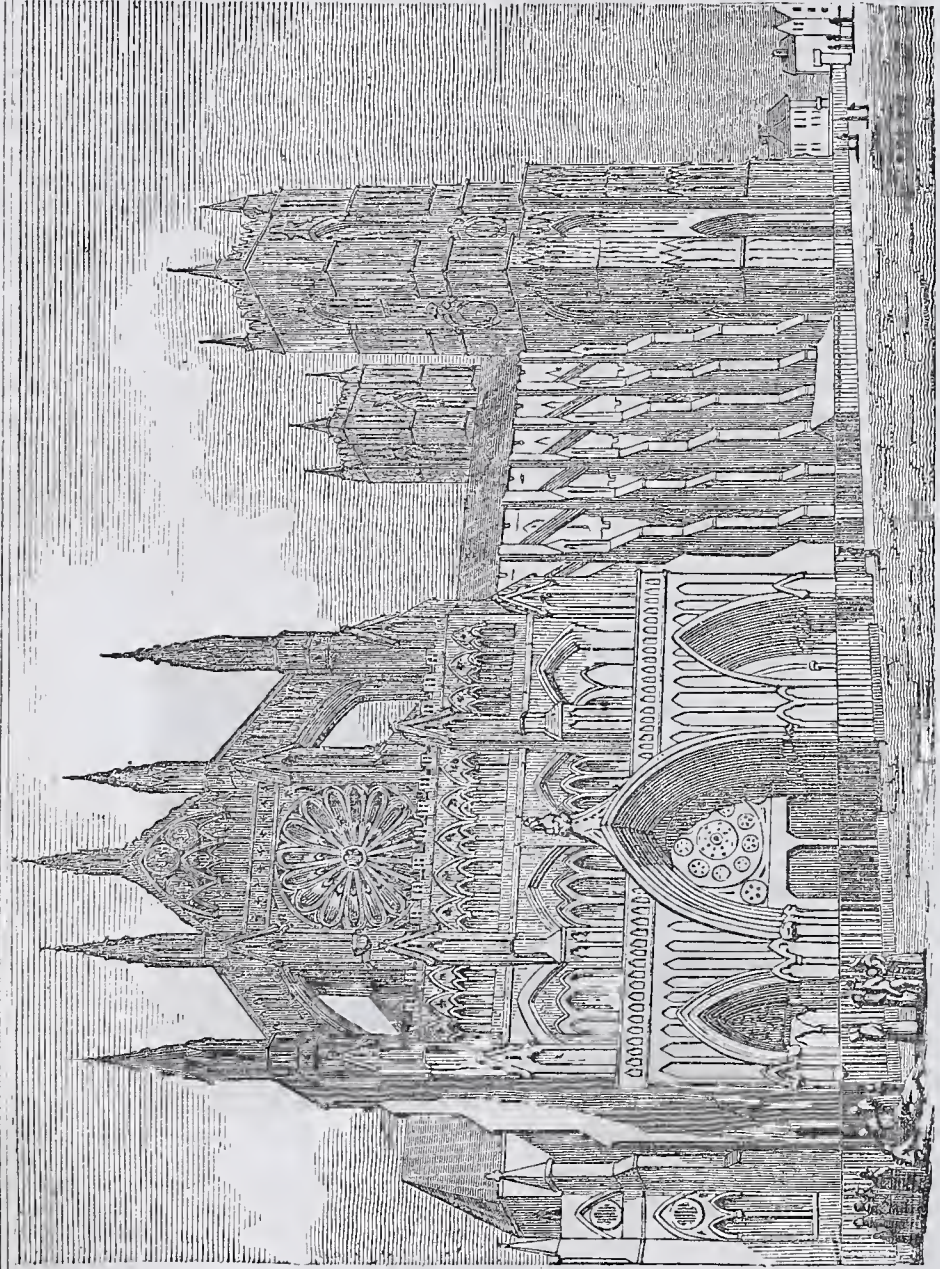


Westminster Abbey and Hall, before the Alterations of Sir Christopher Wren.

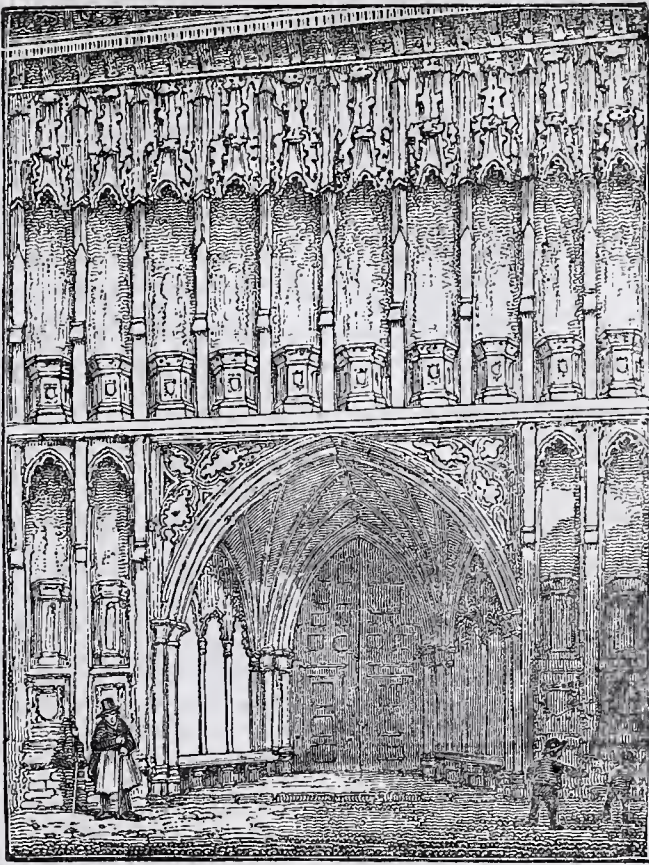
The principal object of attention of the exterior of Westminster abbey, with the exception of the towers and Henry VII.'s chapel, is the magnificent portico leading into the north cross, which, by some, has been styled the Beautiful, or Solomon's Gate. It is built in the Gothic style, and adorned with a window of modern design, admirably executed.

The interior has a commanding appearance; the Gothic arches separating the nave from the sides aisles are supported by forty-eight pillars of gray marble, which are so well disposed that the whole body of the church may be seen on entering the west door.

The choir, which is comparatively of recent date, was constructed under the direction of the late Mr. Keene, surveyor to the abbey, but has been refitted since the



Front of the Northern Transept, Westminster Abbey.



Western Entrance of Westminster Abbey.

coronation of his majesty George IV., in 1821. It is executed in the ancient Gothic style, which the architect has so far improved as to mix simplicity with ornament; and these he has so happily blended, as to produce the most pleasing effect.

The modern marble altar-piece, which was designed by Sir C. Wren, for the chapel at Whitehall, and given to this abbey by Queen Anne, was taken down at the coronation, and the original altar-piece has been restored as nearly as possible to its ancient design. The *Mosaic pavement* in front of the altar is said to have been executed by Richard de Ware, abbot of Westminster. It is a very curious specimen of workmanship.

On the north side of the choir are the monuments of Aymer de Valence, earl of Pembroke, and his countess, and Edmund Crouchback, earl of Lancaster; and on the south side are those of Sebert, the original founder of the abbey, and Anne of Cleves; all of which have recently been repaired, and are well worthy the notice of the antiquary.

The roof of the lantern, which was destroyed by fire July 9th, 1803, has been rebuilt in a style more suitable to the other part of the edifice than the old one, and is richly adorned with carving and gilding.

Edward the Confessor's chapel is situated behind the altar, at the east end of the choir, and is so called because it contains the shrine of St. Edward, an exquisite specimen of workmanship, executed by Pietro Cavallini, by order of Henry III. It is now very much dilapidated, but still bears marks of its ancient splendor. In this chapel are the tombs of Editha, Edward's queen—of Henry III.—of his son, Edward I., and several other royal monuments. Here also are kept the iron sword of Edward I., a part of his shield, the helmet and shield of Henry V., and the coronation chairs. The most ancient, under the seat of which is placed the stone said to have been Jacob's pillow, was brought with the regalia, from Scone in Scotland, by Edward I.,

in 1297; the other chair was made for Mary, the consort of William III. The screen of the chapel is adorned with several statues, and with fourteen legendary hieroglyphics respecting the Confessor, executed in basso-relievo.

Henry VII.'s chapel, which is so called from its founder, was commenced in 1502, the first stone having been laid in the presence of this monarch, and was completed in about ten years. It is supposed by some to have been constructed under the direction of Sir Reginald Bray, and by others under that of Bishop Fox, while others imagine that Bolton, the prior of St. Bartholomew's, was the architect employed. It is situated east of the abbey, and is constructed in the florid Gothic style. The exterior is adorned with fourteen octagonal towers jutting from the building in different angles, and ornamented with a profusion of sculpture. The whole was repaired between 1809 and 1823, at the expense of forty-two thousand pounds which was supplied by parliament.

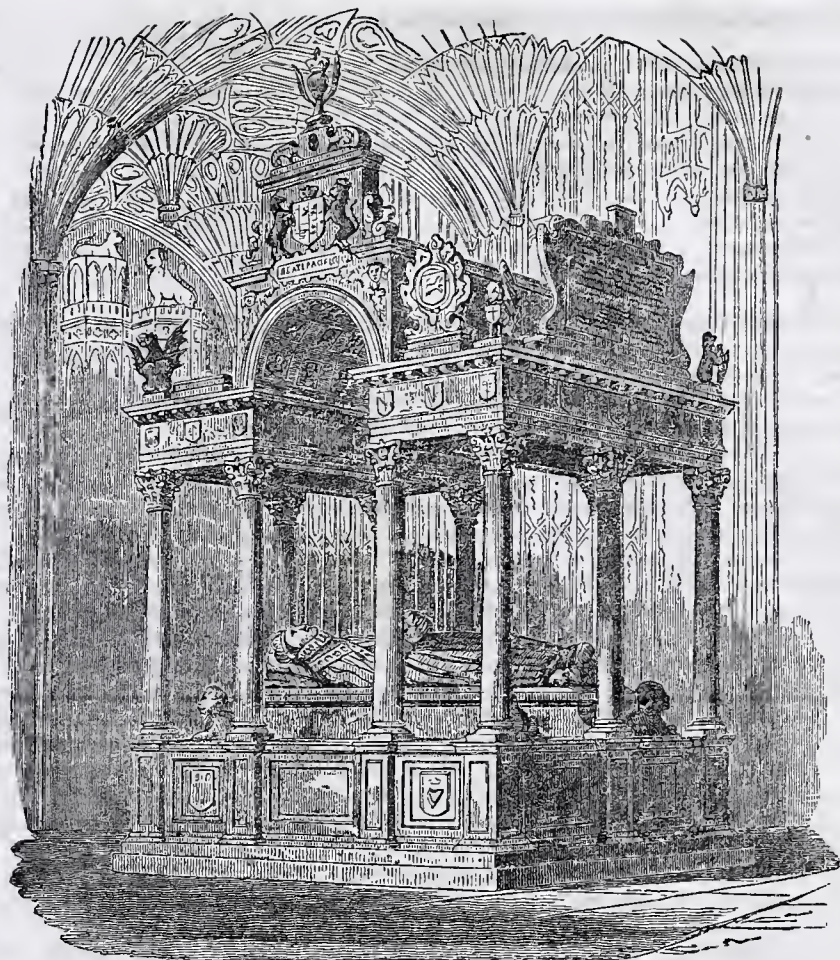
The ascent to the inside of the chapel is formed by steps of black marble, under a stately portico, which leads to the gates of the body, or nave, on each hand, opening into the side aisles. The gates are well worth observation; they are of brass, most curiously wrought in the manner of framework, the panels being ornamented with a rose and portcullis alternately. The lofty ceiling, which is in stone, is wrought with an astonishing variety of figures. The stalls are of brown wainscot, with Gothic canopies, most beautifully carved, as are the seats, with strange devices. The pavement is of black and white marble, done at the charge of Dr. Killigrew, once prebendary of this abbey.

The view from the entrance presents the brass chapel and tomb of the founder, and round it, where the east end forms a semi-circle, are the chapels of the dukes of Buckingham and Richmond. The windows, which are fourteen in the upper, and nineteen in the lower range, including the side aisles and portico, were formerly of painted or diapered glass, and in every pane a white rose, the badge of Lancaster, and portcullises, the badge of the Beauforts, of which a few only are now remaining. The roof is nearly flat, and is supported on arches between the nave and side aisles, which turn upon twelve stately Gothic pillars, curiously adorned with figures, fruitage, and foliage.

This chapel, as already stated, was designed as a sepulchre, in which none but such as were of blood-royal should ever be interred; accordingly the will of the founder has been so far observed, that all that have hitherto been admitted are of the highest quality, and can trace their descent from some of the ancient kings.

In the north aisles are the monuments of Queen Elizabeth; the murdered princes, Edward V., and his brother Richard; Sophia and Maria, infant daughters of James I.; Charles Montague, first earl of Halifax; and George Savile, marquis of Halifax. Here likewise is preserved the armor of General Monk.

In the south aisle are the monuments of Mary, queen of Scots; Catherine, Lady Walpole; Margaret Beaufort, countess of Richmond and Derby, the mother of Henry VII.; George Monk, the first duke of Albemarle, and Christopher his son, the second duke. Here also is a monument, on which lies a lady finely robed, the effigy of Margaret Douglas, daughter of Margaret, queen of Scots, by the earl of Angus. This lady, as the English inscription expresses, had to her great-grandfather, King Edward IV.; to her grandfather, King Henry VII.; to her uncle, King Henry VIII.; to her cousin-german, King Edward VI.; to her brother, King James V. of Scotland; to her grandson, King James VI.; having to her great-grandmother and grandmother two queens both named Elizabeth: to her mother, Margaret, queen of Scots, to her aunt, Mary, the French queen; to her cousins-german, Mary and Elizabeth, queens of England; to her niece and daughter-in-law, Mary, queen of Scots. This lady, who was very beautiful, was privately married in 1537, to Thomas Howard, son of the duke of Norfolk, upon which account both of them were committed to the tower by King Henry VIII., her uncle, for affiancing without his consent, and he died in prison; but this Margaret, being released, was soon after married to Matthew, earl of Lennox, by whom she had the handsome Lord Darnley, father of King James I., whose effigy is foremost on the tomb, in a kneeling posture, with the crown over his head, having been married some time to Mary, queen of Scots, but, in the 21st year of his age, murdered, not without some suspicion of foul practices in the queen. There are several children besides round the tomb of Margaret, of whom only three are mentioned in history, the rest dying young. This great lady died March 10th, 1577. At the end is the royal vault, as it is called, in which the remains of King



Tomb of Queen Elizabeth, in the North Aisle of Henry the Seventh's Chapel, Westminster Abbey

Charles II., King William III., and Queen Mary, his consort, Queen Anne, and Prince George, are all deposited. Over them, in a wainscot press, is the effigy of King Charles II. in wax-work, resembling life, and dressed in the robes he wore at Windsor, at the installation of the knights of the garter.

From this aisle is an entry into the nave of the chapel, where are installed, with great ceremony, the knights of the most honorable order of the Bath : which order was revived in the reign of King George I., in 1725. In their stalls are placed brass plates of their arms, and over them hang their banners, swords, and helmets. Under the stalls are seats for the esquires ; each knight has three, whose arms are engraved on brass plates.

The principal object of admiration here, both for its antiquity and its workmanship, is the magnificent tomb of Henry VII., and Elizabeth his queen, the last of the house of York who wore the English crown. It is ornamented with many devices, alluding to his family and alliances ; such as portcullises, denoting his relation to the Beauforts by his mother's side ; roses twisted and crowned in memory of the union of the two houses of Lancaster and York ; and at each end a crown in a bush, referring to the crown of Richard III., found in a hawthorn near Bosworth Field, where that famous battle was fought for a diadem, which turning in the favor of Henry, his impatience was so great to be crowned that he caused the ceremony to be performed on the spot, with that very crown the competitor had lost.

In a fine vault under Henry the Seventh's chapel, is the burying-place of the royal family, erected by King George II.

The dimensions of Henry VII.'s chapel are :—

Length from east to west, including the walls	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	115 feet.
Breadth, including the walls	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	80 "
Height of the octagonal towers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	71 "
Height to the top of the roof	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	86 "
Height to the top of the west turrets	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	102 "
Length of the nave	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	104 "
Breadth of the nave	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	36 "
Height of the nave	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	61 "
Breadth of each aisle	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	17 "

St. Andrew's chapel, which is next to the north cross, and the others which surround the choir, are crowded with monuments of noble personages, worthy of the attention of the curious.

St. Benedict's chapel contains the tomb and effigies of Archbishop Langham, and at the corner is an iron gate opening into the south cross aisle.

The Poets' Corner is so called from the number of monuments erected there to celebrate English poets, though we find here a most magnificent monument erected at the south end to the memory of John, duke of Argyle; and others to Camden the antiquary; Doctor Isaac Barrow, the divine; and Thomas Parr, who died at the age of 152 years. Among the interesting monuments in Poets' Corner, is that raised to the memory of WILLIAM SHAKSPERE—though men who live in their works never want statues. Both the design and workmanship of it are extremely elegant. The figure of Shakspeare, his attitude, his dress, his shape, his air, are so delicately expressed by the sculptor, that they can not be too much admired or praised; and the beautiful lines that appear upon the scroll are very happily chosen from the poet's works. The heads on the pedestal, representing Henry V., Richard III., and Queen Elizabeth, three principal characters in his plays, are likewise appropriate ornaments. The taste that is shown does honor to those under whose direction it was constructed, namely, the earl of Burlington, Dr. Mead, Mr. Pope, and Mr. Martin. It was designed by Kent, executed by Scheemakers, and the expense defrayed by the grateful contributions of the public.

Near this tomb were interred the remains of RICHARD BRINSLEY SHERIDAN, the poet, the wit, and the orator; whose only monument is a black marble slab, placed there by his friend Mr. P. Moore. Here likewise may be seen the names of "O rare Ben Jonson," Spenser, Chaucer, Butler, Milton, Mason, Gray, Prior, Granville Sharp, Mrs. Pritchard, Thomson, Mrs. Rowe, Gay, Goldsmith, Handel, Chambers, Addison, Dr. Hales, Sir J. Pringle, Sir R. Taylor, Wyatt, Græbius, Casaubon, Garrick, Dryden, Cowley, Davenant, Gifford the translator of Juvenal and many years editor of the Quarterly Review, &c.

The monuments in the other parts of the abbey are too numerous to be minutely detailed. In the south aisle are those of Dr. South, Dr. Vincent, Sir Cloudesley Shovel, Dr. Watts, General Paoli, Dr. Burney, Thomas Thynne, whose murder in his own carriage is here represented, &c. In the west aisle are those of Major André, whose remains were brought from America and interred here, in 1821; Sir J. Chardin, Lord Howe, Admiral Tyrell, W. Congreve, W. Pitt, who is represented speaking in his robes as chancellor of the exchequer, Sir Thomas Hardy, Sir Godfrey Kneller, Banks the sculptor, Dr. Mead, Sir Isaac Newton, Lord Stanhope, by Rysbach, &c. In the north aisle, those of Lord Ligonier, General Wolfe, Pulteney, earl of Bath, Dr. Arnold, Dr. Croft, Dr. Burney, Mr. Perceval, two Knights Templars, &c.

In the north transept were buried, near to each other, Pitt, earl of Chatham, those celebrated rivals, Pitt and Fox, Grattan, the Irish orator, and Lord Londonderry. Here likewise are the monuments of Lord Mansfield, earl of Chatham, Admiral Warren, Sir Eyre Coote, Jonas Hanway, Mr. Horner, by Chantrey, &c.

St. Erasmus's chapel contains the tombs of Lord Hunsdon and Lord Exeter, in the time of Elizabeth; and wax figures of Queen Elizabeth, William and Mary, Lord Chatham, Queen Anne, and Lord Nelson.

The chapel of St. John and St. Michael is adorned with the monument of Lady Nightingale executed by Roubiliac, and remarkable for the beauty of its workmanship; the lady is represented as protected by her husband, while a fine figure of

Death is seen coming out of a tomb to hurl his dart. Here also are the tombs of Admiral Kempenfelt and Pococke.

Henry V.'s chapel contains models of the abbey and of several churches in London, among which are St. John's, Westminster, St. Mary-le-Strand, St. Clement Danes, &c.

The dimensions of the abbey are, exclusive of Henry VII.'s chapel—

Length from east to west, including walls	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	416 feet.
Height of the west towers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	225 "
Length within the walls	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	383 "
Breadth at the transept	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	203 "
Length of the nave	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	166 "
Breadth of the nave	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	39 "
Height of the nave	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	102 "
Breadth of each aisle	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	17 "
Length of the choir	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	156 "
Breadth of the choir	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	28 "

Besides the church, many of the ancient appendages of the abbey remain. The cloisters are entire, and filled with monuments. They are built in a quadrangular form, with piazzas toward the court, in which several of the prebendaries have houses.

The entrance into the chapter-house (built in 1250) is on one side of the cloisters, through a rich and magnificent Gothic portal, the mouldings of which are most exquisitely carved. By consent of the abbot, in 1377, the commons of Great Britain first held their parliaments in this place, the crown undertaking the repairs. Here they sat till the year 1547, when Edward VI. granted them the chapel of St. Stephen. It is at present filled with the public records, among which is the original Domesday-Book, now above seven hundred years old : it is in as fine preservation as if it were the work of yesterday.

Beneath the chapter-house is a very singular crypt, the roof of which is supported by massy plain ribs, diverging from the top of a short round pillar, quite hollow. The walls are not less than eighteen feet thick, and form a firm base to the superstructure.

The Jerusalem-Chamber, built by Littlington, formed a part of the abbot's lodgings. It is noted for having been the place where Henry IV. breathed his last : he had been seized with a swoon while praying before the shrine of St. Edward, and, being carried into this room, asked, on recovering, where he was. Being informed, he answered—to use the words of Shakspeare, founded on history—

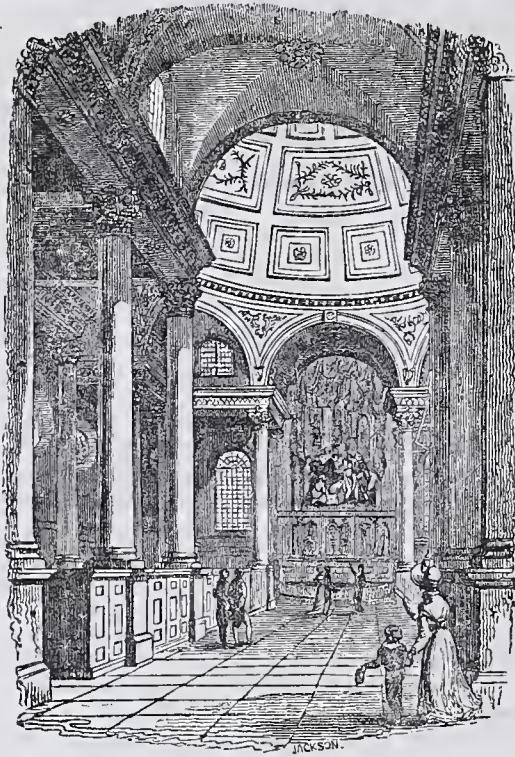
“ Laud be to God!—even here my life must end.
It hath been prophesied to me many years
I should not die but in *Jerusalem*,
Which vainly I supposed the HOLY LAND !”

Not far from the abbey stood the sanctuary, the place of refuge absurdly granted, in former times, to criminals of certain denominations. The church belonging to it was in the form of a cross. It is supposed to have been the work of the Confessor. Within its precincts was born Edward V. ; and here his unhappy mother took refuge, with her younger son Richard, to secure him from his cruel uncle, who had already possession of the elder brother.

To the west of the sanctuary stood the eleemosynary, or almonry, where the alms of the abbey were distributed. But it is still more remarkable for having been the place where the first printing-press ever known in England was erected. It was in 1474, when William Caxton, encouraged by “ the great,” and probably by the learned Thomas Milling, then abbot, produced “ The Game and Play of the Chesse,” the first book ever printed in Great Britain. There is a slight difference about the place in which it was printed, but all agree that it was within the precincts of this religious house.

The abbey is open every day for divine service, at ten in the morning and at three in the afternoon.

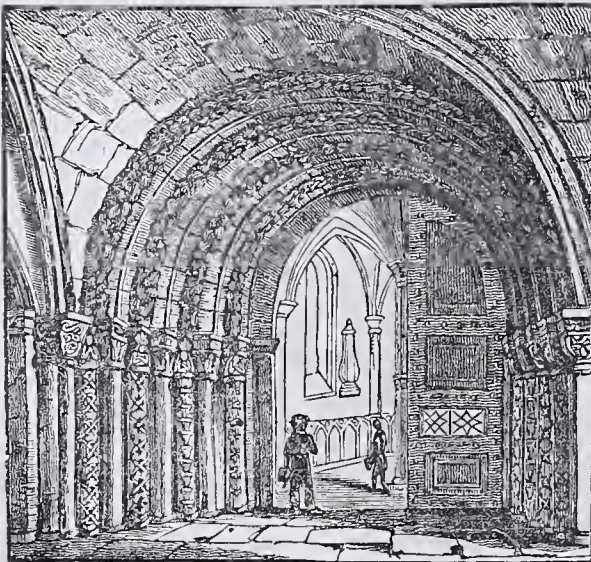
St. Stephen's, in Walbrook, is deemed the master-piece of the celebrated Sir Christopher Wren, and is said to exceed every modern structure in the world in pro-



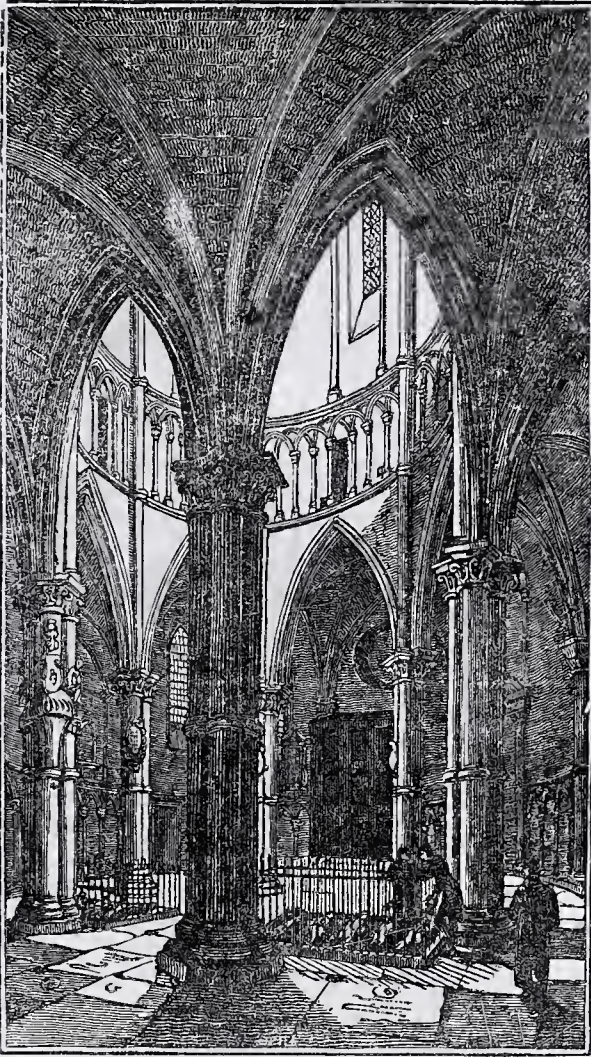
Interior of St. Stephen's, Walbrook.

portion and elegance. The plan is original, yet simple; the elevation surprising, yet chaste and beautiful: the dome, supported by eight arches, springing from eight single columns, is wonderfully light and scenic in its effect. Over the altar is a fine picture by West, representing the interment of St. Stephen. This church is seventy-five feet long, and fifty-six broad, and the central roof is thirty-four feet high.

The Temple church is, in part at least, perhaps the very oldest building now remaining in the metropolis. The character of the architecture of the circular edifice which forms its western extremity, in which the windows are terminated by the cir-



Porch of the Temple Church.



Interior of the Temple Church.

cular or Norman, and not by the pointed or Gothic arch, proves it to be a work of not a later date than the twelfth century. And this inference is confirmed by the historical fact of its having been dedicated to the Virgin Mary, by Heraclius, the patriarch of Jerusalem, when he was in England, in the year 1185. At this time it was probably newly built. The ground now occupied by what are called the inner and the middle temples, and also a space lying to the west of the latter, formerly designated the outer temple, and now covered by Essex street and its neighborhood, was anciently the property and chief seat, in England, of the wealthy and renowned community of military monks, the Knights Templars. The first house, or preceptory, as it was called, which the Templars had in this country, was situated on the south side of Holborn, on the spot where the Southampton buildings now stand. Thence they removed, probably about the time of the dedication of the church, to this dwelling in Fleet street, which accordingly went for a long time by the name of the "New Temple." The body, or eastern part of the church, appears to have been built about the year 1240; and here the arches of the windows are pointed, in conformity with the style which had by this time been generally introduced. Formerly the dedication of the church by Heraclius was recorded in a Latin inscription, cut in the characters of the time, on a stone over the southwest entrance to the round end. This stone was broken by the workmen, who were employed in executing

some repairs on the building after a fire, in 1695; but an accurate copy of the inscription had been taken a short time before, and it has lately been replaced in its old situation.

The Temple church contains many sepulchral monuments; but the most remarkable are a number of figures in stone, disposed in two groups of five each. Five of these figures are cross-legged, from which it has been usual to consider them as the effigies of warriors who had fought with the infidels in the Holy Land. It does not appear, however, that the attitude in question really has that import; it being usual so to represent persons on their tombs who had merely formed the design or made a vow of performing a pilgrimage to Jerusalem, whether they had fulfilled it or not.

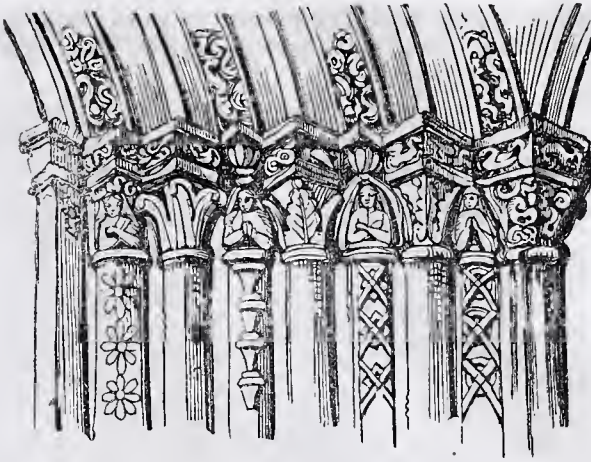


Monumental Figures in the Temple Church.

The figure of the knights in the Temple church are supposed to have been collected from various places, and to have been laid in their present position long after the deaths of the persons whom they represent. Antiquaries have formed various conjectures with regard to the individuals for whom these figures are intended; but they have not been able to offer anything on the subject beyond conjecture, and in reference to several of the monuments not even that.

The Temple church very nearly fell a sacrifice to the great fire in 1666. It was the stonework of this building, indeed, by which the flames were first effectually resisted. It suffered much injury, however, in 1695, from another fire, which entirely destroyed a considerable part of the Temple. On that occasion, and also in 1811, it underwent extensive repairs; but it has within the last few years been still more completely renovated under the direction of Mr. Smirke, who has shown great taste in his restoration of the decayed parts of the building. The Temple church has generally been considered as having been built on the model of the Basilica, or Metropolitan temple of Jerusalem, from which the knights by whom it was founded, derived their name. The following is the architectural description of the edifice, as given by Mr. Brayley in his *Londoniana*:—

“All the exterior walls, which are five feet in thickness, are strengthened by projecting buttresses. In the upright, the vestibule (that is the round part) consists of two stories, the upper one being about half the diameter of the lower story, which measures fifty-eight feet across the area. The lower part of the upper story is surrounded by a series of semicircular arches, intersecting each other, and forming a blank arcade; behind which, and over the circular aisle (if it may be so termed), there is a continued passage. The staircase leading to the latter is on the northwest side; and about halfway up, in the substance of the wall, is a small dark cell, most probably intended as a place of confinement. Over the arcade are six semicircular headed windows. The clustered columns which support the roof are each formed by four distinct shafts, which are surrounded, near the middle, by a triplicated band,



Capitals of Pillars of the Porch of the Temple Church.

and have square-headed capitals ornamented in the Norman style. The principal entrance is directly from the west, but there is a smaller one on the southwest side: the former opens from an arched porch, and consists of a receding semicircular archway, having four columns on each side, supporting archivolt mouldings, which, like the capitals and jambs, are ornamented with sculptured foliage, busts, and lozenges."

Highgate church is built on the summit of Highgate hill. It is a beautiful edifice, with a fine Gothic spire, which is an honorable monument to the taste of Mr. L.



Highgate Church.

Vulliamy, its architect. It is impossible to imagine a more beautiful site than that chosen for the church, or a style of building better adapted to the situation. The interior is extremely neat and commodious.



Church of St. Martin's in the Fields.

The church of St. Martin's is perhaps, next to St. Paul's, the finest building in the Grecian style, of which the metropolis has to boast. It is accounted the happiest effort of the eminent architect, James Gibbs, a native of Scotland, by whom it was erected, and who is also well known as the designer and builder of the senate-house at Cambridge, the Radcliffe library at Oxford, and various other public edifices. The portico, in particular, consisting of very lofty Corinthian columns, to which there is

an ascent by a long flight of steps, has been greatly admired. The beauty and grandeur of this noble elevation, however, have only been lately rendered visible by the removal of the old buildings by which it used to be so closely surrounded; and its effect will not be properly appreciated till the completion of the magnificent improvements in progress in this quarter of the metropolis. The spire also of St. Martin's is one of the most beautiful in London; and the interior of the church, and especially its richly-ornamented ceiling, may be fairly described as altogether worthy of its external architecture. Its length is one hundred and forty feet, its breadth sixty, and its height forty-five. The curve of the ceiling is elliptical.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

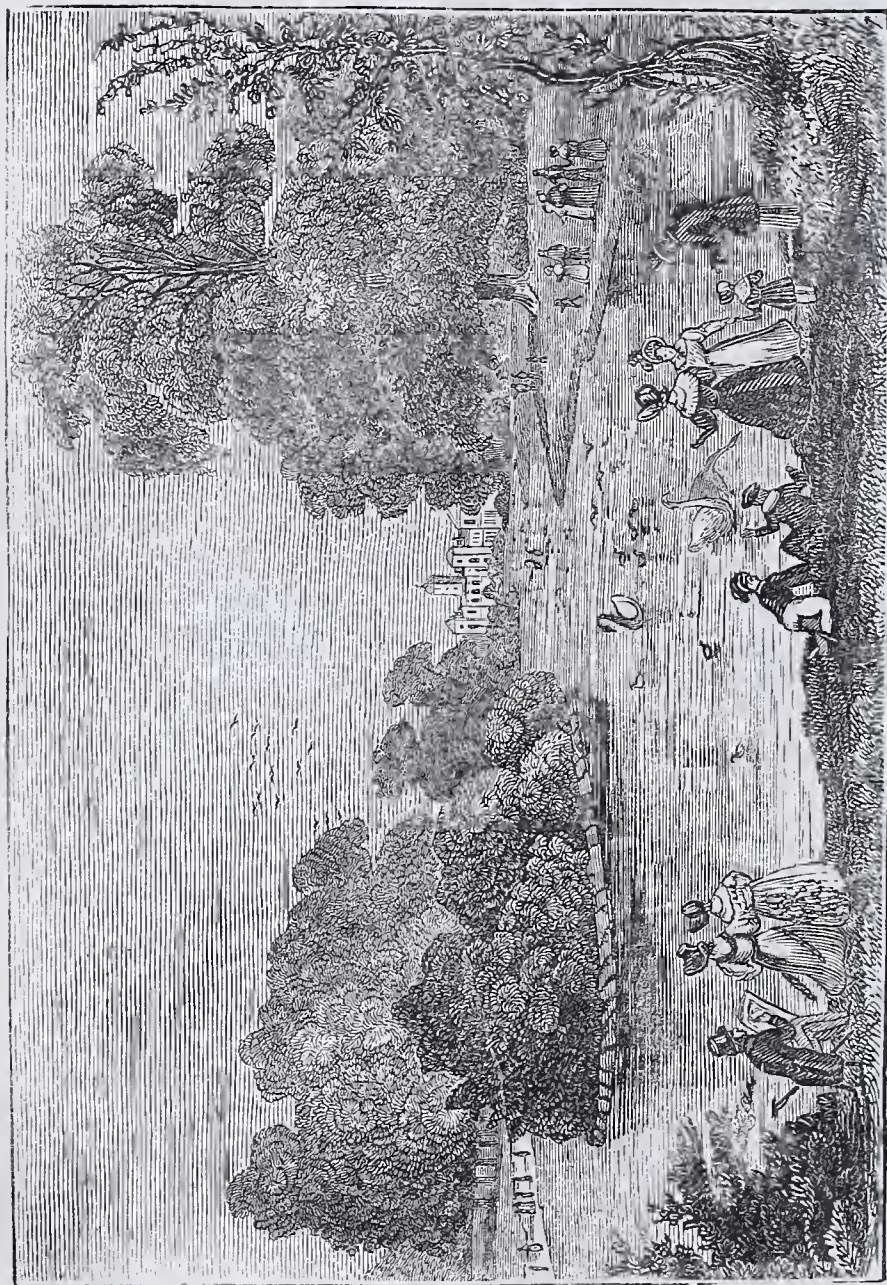
PUBLIC WALKS.

THE parks of London lie on its western side. St. James's extends from behind the Horse Guards and government offices in Whitehall and Downing street to the new palace; its adjunct, the Green park, reaches thence to Piccadilly and Hyde park corner. The chief western entrance into the metropolis (the road from Bath, &c.), which runs into Piccadilly, separates the western extremity of the Green park from the southeast side of Hyde park; and at this particular spot the stranger, who is entering London for the first time, will receive a favorable impression of the grandeur of the metropolis. On either side of the road or street, which is spacious, are handsome gateways, that on the right leading into the Green park, and those on the left into Hyde park. The central and side gateways leading into Hyde park are connected by a fine screen; and the bronze gates in these and in the Green park gateway on the opposite side are beautiful specimens of art.

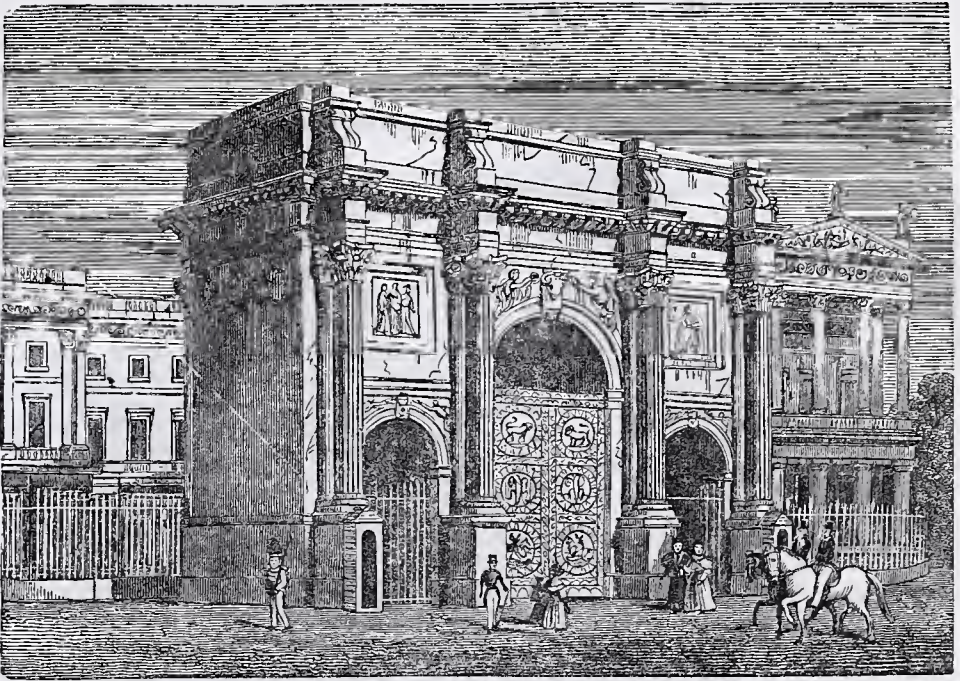
St. James's park is the oldest of the metropolitan parks. It appears to have been a waste marshy piece of ground till the reign of Henry VIII.: it was partly drained and enclosed by him. He built a gateway in 1532 at the north end of King street and corner of Downing street, over which he had a passage from Whitehall palace into the park. The park was much improved in the reign of Charles II., and it has been since that time a favorite resort; but it did not assume its present picturesque appearance till 1828, when Mr. Nash, the designer of Regent's park, converted it from being a formal and almost swampy meadow into a beautiful and luxuriant-looking garden.

St. James's park received its name from being connected with the palace of St. James, which Henry VIII. built on the site of St. James's hospital. Hyde park is so called, from the ground having formed a chief portion of the manor of Hyde, belonging to Westminster abbey. This park comprises nearly 400 acres. On its western side are Kensington gardens, attached to the palace. Kensington palace was purchased by William III., whose queen took much pleasure in improving the gardens. They were, however, laid out in their present form by Queen Caroline, the wife of George II. The gardens are about three miles and a half in circumference, and contain a number of magnificent trees. On fine evenings—especially Sunday evenings—in spring and summer, they are thronged with visitors.

Regent's park was formed in 1814. The ground was the property of the crown, and was let to various persons—but the leases having expired, the property was converted into its present handsome and ornamental form, from the designs of Mr. Nash. The name, as the reader is doubtless aware, was given in compliment to George IV., then prince regent. The park is circular, and comprises about 450 acres. It contains a sheet of water; several handsome villas have been built in its interior; and round it is a spacious drive, or road, the exterior side of which is occupied by a number of fine terraces, or ranges of building, highly ornamented, some with colonnades and pillars, and others with allegorical groups and figures. As mentioned formerly, the Zoological gardens occupy a portion of the park.



St. James's Park.



Entrance Arch of the New Palace, St. James's Park.

St. James's park, the smallest of the London parks, is certainly the prettiest. It is bounded on the east by the parade at the back of the Horse Guards (p. 353), and at its western extremity is the new palace, recently converted into a royal residence by her present majesty. On the southern and northern sides are the Bird-cage walk and the Mall, the latter a fine avenue, planted with trees. An iron railing separates the Green park from St. James's. Hemmed in, as St. James's park is, by buildings on every side, the sheet of water, shrubbery, and trees, afford in summer very fine contrasts—a delightful landscape in the heart of a city.

In 1814, St. James's, the Green park, and Hyde park were made the scene of rejoicings and illuminations—a grand jubilee being held in commemoration of various events, the close of the war, the centenary of the accession of the house of Brunswick, the anniversary of the battle of the Nile, &c. On this occasion half-a-guinea was charged for admission into the enclosed portion of St. James's park; it had all the appearance of Vauxhall on a full night. The Green park and Hyde park were thrown open to the people. The amusements consisted of a mimic sea-fight on the piece of water called the Serpentine, in Hyde park; boat-races on the canal in St. James's (the park had not then been metamorphosed by Mr. Nash), with booths, bridges, a pagoda, a fortress which was to be turned into a temple of Concord, fireworks, illuminations, a balloon ascent, &c. The pagoda was accidentally burnt in the course of the night, but this would rather have heightened instead of marring the enjoyment of the people, had it not been for the deaths of two persons by the fire. In Hyde park the booths, shows, gaming-tables, printing-presses, &c., remained for upward of a week afterward, nor would the owners abandon the fair, till turned out by the magistrates and police.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

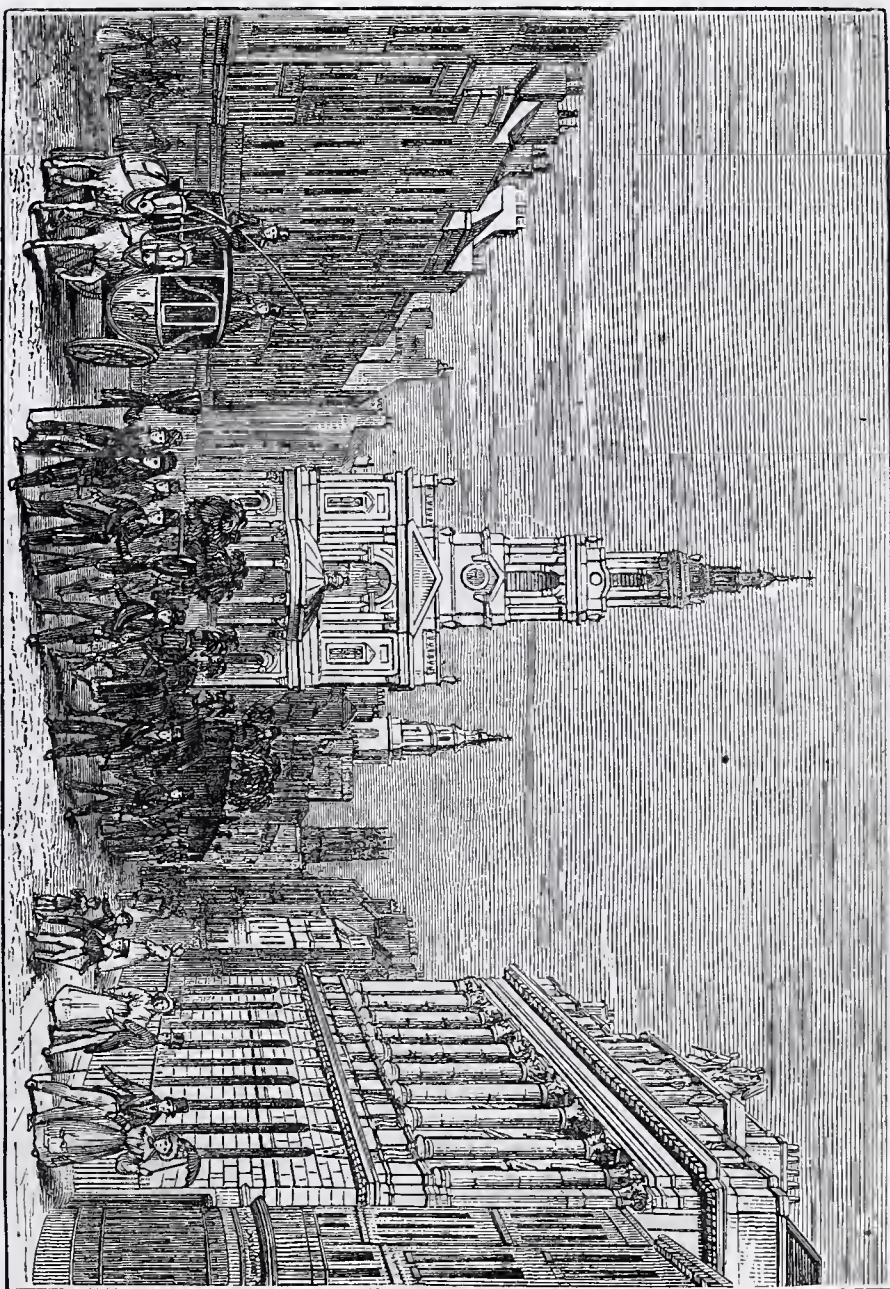
FUNERALS AND CEMETERIES.

THE modes in which funerals are conducted in different parts of the United Kingdom are, to a certain extent, indicative of provincial characteristics. An English country churchyard may be rude, and its tombstones covered with epitaphs which do not display much literary taste or skill; yet there is something about an English funeral, when conducted in the old-fashioned English country manner, calculated, from the combination of simplicity and seriousness, to stir the heart. Wordsworth has described one:—

“ From out the heart
Of that profound abyss a solemn voice,
Or several voices in one solemn sound,
Was heard, ascending: mournful, deep, and slow
The cadence, as of psalms—a funeral dirge!
We listened, looking down toward the hut,
But seeing no one: meanwhile from below
The strain continued, spiritual as before;
And now distinctly could I recognise
These words—‘ Shall in the grave thy love be known,
In death thy faithfulness!’—‘ God rest his soul!’
The wanderer cried, abruptly breaking silence,
‘ He is departed, and finds peace at last!’
This scarcely spoken, and those holy strains
Not ceasing, forth appeared in view a band
Of rustic persons, from behind the hut,
Bearing a coffin in the midst, with which
They shaped their course along the sloping side
Of that small valley; singing as they moved;
A sober company and few, the men
Bareheaded, and all decently attired!”

A Scotch funeral, like the Scotch character, is quiet, decent, carefully performed, and striking, from the uniformity with which the relatives and friends attending are clothed, not in cloaks, or with sashes or bands, but in suits of black, with hatbands of crape, and strips of cambric turned up on the cuffs of the coat, technically called *weepers*. But to an English mind a Scotch funeral is deficient in impressiveness, arising from there being no funeral service performed over the grave. This is in some measure obviated by the solicitude which the Scotch of all classes display, in securing the presence of a clergyman among the other friends and relatives, and who offers up prayers in the apartment where the company are assembled, previous to the procession setting out for the churchyard. The Rev. C. Otway, in describing a funeral which he witnessed in the churchyard of Glasgow cathedral, says: “ The funeral was as orderly as the place to which it was tending; the hearse, a sort of close panclled ark, all its compartments painted with well executed scriptural representations; all the relatives and acquaintances of the deceased following on foot, with perfectly new black clothing, large white cuffs, called *weepers*, to their coats; in solemn line, and by twos or threes, they followed the coffin to the grave, and without any service read, or exhortation uttered, the body was consigned to its earth; and while all others in the same silent order returned from the tomb, a few of the nearest relatives remained, to cast over the coffin the white riband ornaments or cords with which they lowered it into the grave, and to see the clay closed over the tenant’s tomb. During this decent rite I stood aloof, observing that none but the friends of the deceased followed in the procession; there was no rush of idle strangers toward the grave.” The *etiquette* of Scotch funerals carefully excludes the presence of females, even that of the nearest relatives.

An Irish *country* funeral is a remarkable thing. If the deceased has been at all known and respected—especially if he has been a clergyman—the concourse that precedes and follows the bier both in cars and on horse and foot is immense. The stopping and solemn repetition of prayers at cross roads—the deep, slow, modulated chant known as the Irish cry or *ululu*—the long sweeping procession, men, women, and children, in every kind of garb—all strike the mind of the Englishman or the



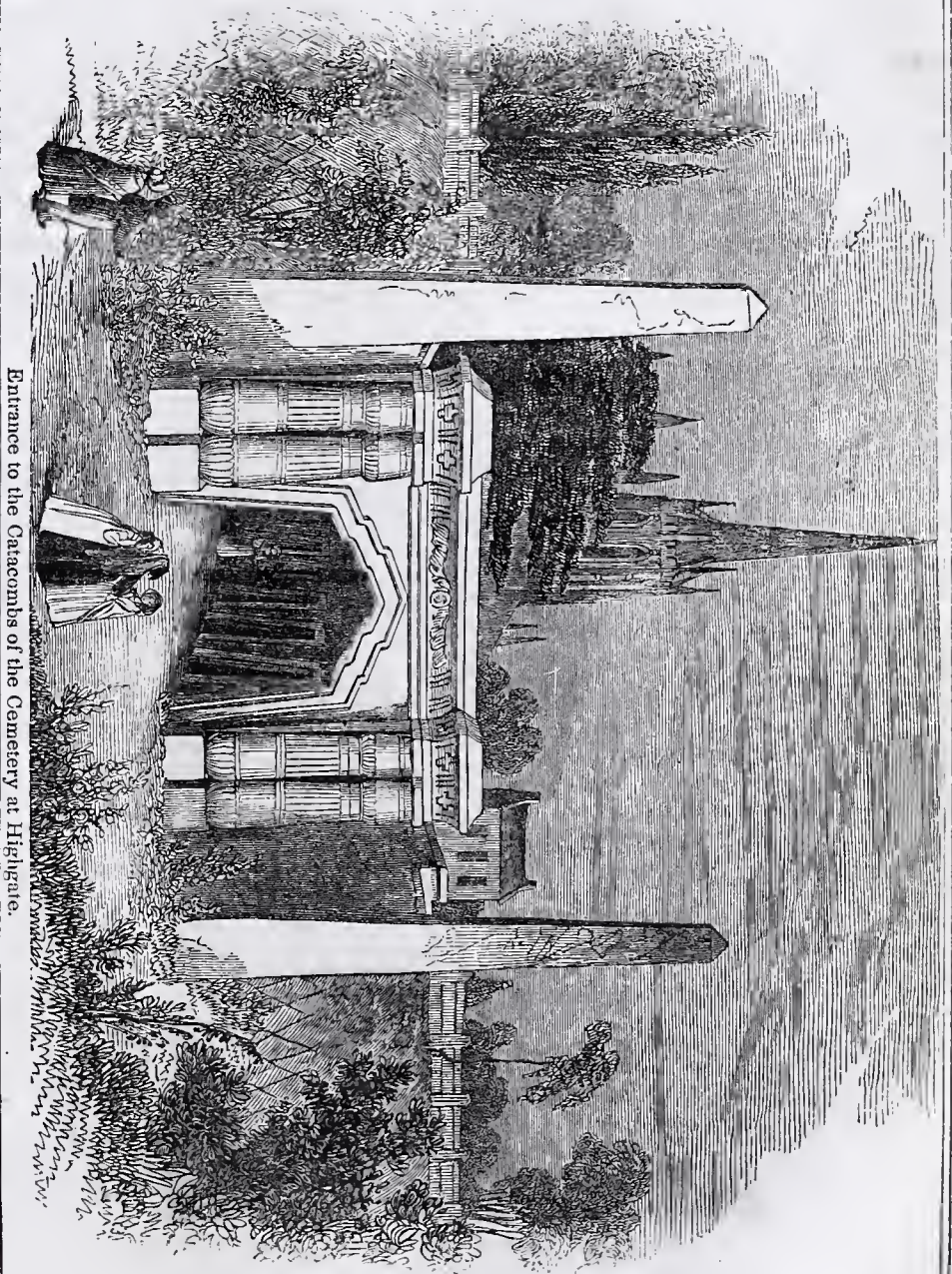
The Strand—Churches of St. Mary-le-Strand and St. Clement Danes, with Front of Somerset House.

Scotchman, as something wild and singular, yet imposing. But a funeral in such a city as Dublin is very different. Among the upper classes, it is too frequently a cold ceremony—a string of carriages following the coffin to the grave. Among the lower classes again, it is too frequently a scene offensive to one's notions of propriety, for whiskey having been freely distributed, many of the attendants manifest that they have not less freely used it; but there has been a considerable improvement of late years in this respect.

Of a funeral in London, what can be said?—a place with so various a population, and where a man may die and his next neighbor know nothing of it, till he remarks the *mutes* with their muffled standards at the door. Notwithstanding the varied population, the undertakers, in whose hands is generally placed the management of London funerals, contrive to give them a uniformity of appearance. If thirty or forty pounds are to be spent on the funeral rites, the undertaker provides a large body of attendants, who perform for hire what in country places is done by friends and acquaintances from feeling or respect. A pall is borne before the hearse garnished with nodding plumes; the hearse is garnished in a similar manner, and so are the horses, which are all of a jet black. Following the hearse is the mourning-coach, and two or three other coaches close the procession. But if the funeral is to be conducted at less expense, and on foot, the undertaker provides cloaks, scarfs, and hatbands, for the relatives and friends who follow the body to the grave; and when the funeral is over, it is his understood duty to precede the chief mourners and such of their friends as accompany them from the churchyard to the house whence the deceased was carried. One of the most mournful, yet one of the most unpicturesque scenes to be seen in London, is the return of the mourners, generally the greater number females, the undertaker marching with a quiet unconcerned air at their head, and they wrapped in heavy ungraceful scarfs and hoods, each holding a handkerchief to the face, either from excess of grief, or compliance with the usual habit.

In 1819, the "Quarterly Review" complained that, "in the metropolis it had become more difficult to find room for the dead than the living." The commissioners for the improvements in Westminster reported to parliament in 1814, that "St. Margaret's churchyard could not, consistently with the health of the neighborhood, be used much longer as a burying-ground, for that it was with the greatest difficulty a vacant place could at any time be found for strangers; the family graves generally would not admit of more than one interment; and many of them were then too full for the reception of any member of the family to which they belonged. There are many churchyards in which the soil has been raised several feet above the level of the adjoining street, by the continual accumulation of mortal matter; and there are others in which the ground is actually probed with a borer before a grave is opened. In these things the most barbarous savages might be shocked at our barbarity. Many tons of human bones every year are sent from London to the north, where they are crushed in mills contrived for the purpose, and used as manure!" Fifty years ago, a French writer said that the expenses of interment in London were greatly increased by the necessity of digging the graves deep, for the sake of security from the surgeons. Ames, the antiquary, from some such feeling, was deposited in the churchyard of St. George's in the East, in what is called *virgin earth*, at the depth of eight feet, and in a stone coffin. A fatal accident occurred in Clerkenwell a few years ago; in digging a grave to a greater depth than this, the sides fell in and buried the laborer. Yet there has existed a prejudice against new churchyards! No person was interred in the cemetery of St. George's, Queen square, till the ground was broken for Mr. Nelson, the well-known religious writer; his character for piety reconciled others to the spot. People like to be buried in company, and in good company. The dissenters talk with reverent affection of "the funeral honors of Bunhill fields." John Bunyan was buried there, and so numerous have been, and still are, the dying requests of his admirers to be buried as near as possible to the place of his interment, that it is not now possible to obtain a grave near him, the whole surrounding earth being entirely pre-occupied by dead bodies to a very considerable distance.

Such a state of things is now in rapid course of amelioration. The churchyards of London are not so often disturbed as they were. Kensall Green cemetery is becoming already a thronged burial-place; other cemeteries are springing up round London; and if all the projects now on foot be carried out, there will be no lack of metropolitan suburban cemeteries. A company, in 1836, obtained an act for



Entrance to the Catacombs of the Cemetery at Highgate.

"establishing cemeteries for the interment of the dead, northward, southward, and eastward of the metropolis."

It is unnecessary to give a detailed description of London churchyards. The two great receptacles for the illustrious, the noble, or the wealthy dead, are St. Paul's and Westminster abbey. Other cemeteries are, the North London or Highgate cemetery, the South Metropolitan, at Norwood, Abney Park, at Stoke Newington, Newington Butts, and another at Mile End. In all these there are to be found memorials in abundance of names known in literature, art, and science; of worthy merchants and notable citizens, famous in their day and generation; and of thousands, perhaps, in their lives each the centre of a circle, yet of whom all that now remains is dust below, and a name with a laudatory inscription above. "The number of the dead long exceedeth all that shall live. The night of time far surpasseth the day, and who knows when was the equinox? Every hour adds unto that current arithmetic which scarce stands one moment. And since death must be the Lucina of life, and even pagans could doubt whether thus to live were to die—since our longest sun sets at right descensions, and makes but winter arches, and therefore can not be long before we lie down in darkness, and have our light in ashes—since the brother of death daily haunts us with dying mementoes, and time, that grows old itself, bids us hope no long duration—diuturnity is a dream and folly of expectation."



Colonnade over the Catacombs at Kensall Green.

DESCRIPTION OF SCOTLAND.

CHAPTER XL.

GEOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTION.—SOIL.—CLIMATE.—PRODUCTIONS.— AGRICULTURE.

SCOTLAND occupies the northern part of the island of Great Britain, and, divided from England by a series of hills and rivers, is externally distinguished from that country by many peculiar features. Mountain chains of primitive, or at least early rock, and in many instances uncovered by vegetation, form a large portion of the surface, giving occasion for many deep inlets of the sea, which peninsulate several districts, and render the general outline extremely irregular. Lakes embosomed in the hills, and clear, copious, and rapid rivers pouring along the vales, help to complete that picture which a native poet has expressed in the well-known apostrophe—

“Land of the mountain and the flood,
Land of brown heath and shaggy wood.”

The arable ground, which is not above a third of the whole surface, chiefly lies in tracts sloping to the seacoast, and in the lower parts of the vales. The less precipitous hilly districts are chiefly occupied as pastoral ground for sheep and cattle. Wood, which once covered a large portion of the surface, is now chiefly confined to the neighborhood of gentlemen's seats, and to plantations which have been raised within the last fifty years for the protection of arable lands from the cold winds.

The mainland of Scotland is situated between fifty-four degrees thirty-eight minutes and fifty-eight degrees forty minutes north latitude, and one degree forty-seven minutes and five degrees forty-five minutes west longitude. It is bounded on the east by the German ocean, on the north by the Northern ocean, on the west by the Atlantic, and on the south by England. The greatest length is two hundred and eighty-four, and the greatest breadth one hundred and forty-seven miles. The entire surface, including the islands, contains thirty thousand square miles, or nearly twenty millions of English statute acres.

To the north of a southward curving line, stretching between Glasgow and Aberdeen, the country is more mountainous than elsewhere, and therefore bears the general appellation of the “Highlands.” This is a district full of romantic scenery—savage precipitous mountains, lakes, rushing streams, and wild-hanging, natural woods. Its population, numbering about 400,000, or a sixth of the entire population of the country, is of Celtic (and in a less degree Scandinavian) descent, and exhibits many peculiar features in language, dress, and manners, which are, however, rapidly becoming obliterated. The remainder of the country is termed the “Lowlands,” as containing less ground of an elevated and irregular character, though here also are several considerable ranges of mountains. The inhabitants of this district, who are more peculiarly entitled to be considered as “the Scotch,” are, like the English, a Teutonic people, but with probably a mixture of Celtic blood; and their language may be considered as only a variety of English.

Connected with Scotland are two large groups of islands, namely : The Northern Islands, including the Orkney and Shetland isles, situated in the Northern ocean, and the Hebrides, or Western Islands, situated in the Atlantic ocean.

Scotland and its islands contain thirty-three counties, which may be thus classed :—

Border counties (so called because forming the border adjacent to England).—Berwick, Roxburg, and Dumfries.

Southwestern counties.—Kirkcudbright and Wigton.

Western counties.—Ayr, Lanark, Renfrew, Bute, and Argyle.

Central counties.—Peebles, Selkirk, Haddington, Edinburgh, Linlithgow, Stirling, Dunbarton, Clackmannan, Kinross, Fife, and Perth.

Northeastern counties.—Forfar (or Angus), Kincardine (or the Mearns), Aberdeen, Banff, Elgin (or Moray), and Nairn.

Northern counties.—Inverness, Ross, Cromarty, Sutherland, Caithness, and Orkney.

For ecclesiastical purposes, the country is divided into parishes (which are also civil divisions), presbyteries, and synods.

The principal rivers are, the Tweed, Annan, Nith, Dee (Kirkcudbright), Ayr, Clyde, Beaulieu, Ness, Findhorn, Spey, Deveron, Ythan, Don, Dee (Aberdeenshire), Tay, Forth, Carron, Leith, and Tyne. The Tay is the most copious, and the Spey the most rapid. Scarcely any of these rivers are navigable to a considerable distance from the sea.

The mountains of Scotland are generally in groups or ranges. The Highlands may be considered as one great cluster of hills; but those bordering on the Lowlands, and extending between Stirlingshire and Aberdeenshire, are more particularly distinguished as the Grampian mountains. The other principal ranges are the Sidlaws, in Forfarshire; the Campsie hills, in Stirlingshire; the Pentlands, in Edinburgshire; the Lammermoors, extending between Berwick and Haddington shires; the Cheviot hills, on the Border; and a great range, of no general name, extending throughout the counties of Selkirk, Peebles, Dumfries, Lanark, Ayr, and Kirkcudbright. The most noted of the Highland mountains are Ben Nevis (4,370 feet, being the highest in the United Kingdom), Ben Mac Dhui (4,327), Cairngorm (4,095), Ben More (3,870), Ben Wyvis (3,720), and Ben Lomond (3,262). The highest of the Pentland range is Carnethy (1,880). Among the southern hills, few exceed 2,500 feet.

In the Highlands, the rocks are generally of the primary kind—granite, gneiss, mica-slate, &c.; the granite generally rising into lofty peaks, on which, in many instances, gneiss and other non-fossiliferous rocks abut or rest. In the Lowlands, the rocks are generally of the transition kind (grawacke, &c.), covered in many parts with coal-measures, trap, and red sandstone. Rocks superior to the red sandstone occur only in a few detached places, and in very small quantity.

The coal-field of Scotland extends with slight interruptions, across the central part of Scotland, from the eastern extremity of Fife to Girvan in Ayrshire; the principal beds being near Dysart and Alloa, in the vale of the Esk near Edinburgh, near the line of the Forth and Clyde canal, at Paisley in Renfrewshire, and at Dalry, Kilmarnock, and Girvan, in Ayrshire. The Scottish coal is chiefly of a hard and lumpy kind, calculated to burn briskly, and therefore well adapted for manufacturing as well as for domestic purposes.

Granite is dug in the neighborhood of Aberdeen, and at Kirkcudbright, for building purposes. The city of Aberdeen itself is chiefly constructed of it; and great quantities of it are transported to London, Liverpool, and other places, to be employed in building bridges, docks, and other structures, in which unusual durability is required. Slates of excellent quality for roofing are quarried at Easdale and Ballahulish, in Argylshire, and in other places. Sandstone slabs for paving are quarried in Caithness, and at Arbroath, in Forfarshire. A fine kind of sandstone is dug in many places, and is the primary cause of the architectural elegance of many of the public and private buildings in the principal towns. Owing to the abundance of both sandstone and trap, both of which are excellently adapted for building, little brick is used in Scotland.

The chief metals worked in Scotland are lead and iron. Lead is extensively wrought in the hills near the junction of Lanark and Dumfries shires, and silver was formerly obtained in considerable quantities in the same district. Iron has latterly

been worked on a great scale in the northern district of Lanarkshire, and in the counties of Renfrew and Ayr. Agates, topazes, cornelians, and some other precious stones, are found in the highlands of Aberdeenshire. Mineral waters, useful for various maladies, exist at Dunse, Moffat, Innerleithen, Airthrey, Bridge of Earn, Peterhead, and Strathpeffer.

The soil of Scotland is of an extremely diversified character. On the comparatively level tracts, much is composed of loam resting on the great clay bed, or diluvium, or of alluvial clay washed down from the hills. Much level as well as hilly ground is also covered by peat bog, the dissolved forests of ancient times. On the trap hills, a light and useful soil, composed of the material below, is generally found. A considerable quantity of the arable soil throughout, being composed of reclaimed bog, contains a peaty material. Out of the thirty thousand square miles comprehended in Scotland, about thirteen thousand are totally incapable of improvement, nine thousand are wastes believed to be capable of improvement, and the remainder are pretty equally divided between arable and pasture land.

The climate, as compared with that of England, is cold, cloudy, and wet; yet the temperature is not liable to such great extremes as that of either England or France, seldom falling below twenty-five degrees of Fahrenheit, or rising above sixty-five, the annual average being from forty-five degrees to forty-seven. The summer is uncertain, and often comprehends many consecutive weeks of ungenial weather; but, on the other hand, the winters are rarely severe, and often include many agreeable days and even weeks. The backwardness of spring is perhaps the worst feature of the meteorological character of the country.

The country, as already mentioned, was originally covered in great part by wood; and this feature is believed to have been expressed in its ancient name, Caledonia (*choille dun*, Gaelic, a wooded hilly country). The natural wood has been allowed in the course of ages to go into decay, in all except in a few remote districts, of which we may particularize the high country at the junction of Aberdeen, Banff, Moray, and Inverness shires. In the last century Scotland had become nearly bare of wood, the only patches being around gentlemen's seats. Within the last fifty years this state of things has been greatly changed. Extensive plantations have been formed in most districts, as a protection to the cultivated lands. Those of the duke of Athole, in Perthshire, are remarkable, above all, for the vast territory which they occupy. Scottish plantations consist chiefly of larch and fir; but the country also produces oak, ash, and elm, in great abundance. It is calculated that about a million of acres in Scotland are now under wood.

Scotland formerly abounded in wild animals, particularly the wild boar, the wild ox, and the wolf. The wild boar has been for many ages extinct; and the wolf has been so since the latter part of the seventeenth century. Of the primitive white wild cattle of the country, there is now only a specimen herd, preserved from curiosity in the parks near Hamilton palace. Birds of prey, the eagle, falcon, and owl, are still found in the Highlands and Western Islands, where also deer and game birds are abundant. Aquatic birds haunt the more precipitous shores in vast quantities. Hares and rabbits everywhere abound, and foxes are not scarce. The rivers of Scotland produce salmon and trout, and herrings, haddocks, cod, and flounders, exist in great abundance in the neighboring seas.

Husbandry was in a very backward state in Scotland till the middle of the eighteenth century. The Highlands produced herds of the native small black cattle; in the low countries, the higher grounds were occupied, as now, by flocks of sheep; but there was little arable land, and that little was ill cultivated and comparatively unproductive. Since then, under the care of a set of patriotic and enlightened individuals, Scotland may be said to have been one great experimental farm for the advancement of husbandry in all its forms. The rearing of turnips for the winter support of cattle has been in itself a most remarkable improvement. A proper rotation of crops has been studied, and has been attended with the best effects. Old, cumbrous, and expensive modes of tillage have been banished, and the light plough and cart substituted in their place. Draining has improved not only the soil but the climate. Lime, and latterly bone manure, have been extensively introduced. The productiveness of the soil has consequently increased in an immense ratio. Oats, a hardy plant, calculated for most soils and climates, is still the chief grain raised in Scotland, and its meal is still the principal food of the peasantry, of working people in general, and of the children of all classes of the community: it is said



British Wild Cattle.

to cover 1,260,000 acres, or a fourth of the whole in cultivation. Barley, which forms a conspicuous article in the food of the common people, and is also used in distillation, occupies 280,000 acres. Wheat is believed to occupy only about 140,000 acres; yet it is remarkable that this grain is exported in considerable quantity from Scotland, while the above two grains are in not less quantity imported from England and Ireland, testifying that the ancient frugal habits of the people with respect to food change less rapidly than the improvement of the soil advances. Potatoes are extensively raised in open fields in Scotland, and now constitute an important article of food to the working classes. The southern hills continue as formerly to be covered by extensive flocks, and sheep-farming has also been extensively introduced in the Highlands. The latter change has necessarily caused the extinction of a kind of cottier system, which came down from the old days of feudalism; yet it is believed that black cattle are as extensively reared in the Highlands as ever; and it is certain that the population, so far from being diminished by the suppression of small farms, increased about one seventh during the first thirty years of the present century.

CHAPTER XLI.

THE PEOPLE—THEIR CHARACTER.—PROGRESS OF POPULATION.

THE Scotch, as already mentioned, are, like the English, a Teutonic people, with only a few distinctive varieties of character, perhaps partly original, and partly the effect of local and political circumstances. It may be remarked, that, though in the main Teutonic, the Scotch do not descend from the same branch of that race as the English. From language and other circumstances, it appears likely that the original colonizers of North Britain were from Scandinavia, Denmark, and Zealand.

The Scotch (taking as usual the general characteristics of the people) may be described as a tall, large-boned, and muscular race. Even the women appear to a southern eye remarkable for the robustness of their figures, though this is a point which the natives are of course apt to overlook or be unconscious of. The Scotch figure is not so round and soft as the English. The face, in particular, is long and angular, with broad cheek bones. The cranium is also said to be somewhat larger, and tending more to a lengthy shape, than that of the English. A fair complexion and light color of hair abound in Scotland, though there are also many instances of every other variety of tint.

The Scottish character exhibits a considerable share of both energy and perseverance. It may safely be said, that a country with so many physical disadvantages could never have been brought into such a condition as respects rural husbandry, nor, with all the advantage of the English connexion, been made so prosperous a seat of both manufactures and commerce, if the people had not been gifted in a high degree with those qualities. A disposition to a frugal and careful use of means is also abundantly conspicuous in the Scotch. The poorest poor, at least in rural districts, are in few instances of such improvident habits, as to exhibit that destitution of furniture, clothing, and tolerable house accommodation, which meets the eye almost everywhere in Ireland. Caution, foresight, and reflection, may be said to enter largely into the Scottish character. Under the influence of these qualities, they are slow and sometimes cold in speech, and are therefore apt to appear as deficient in frankness and generosity. These, however, are in a great measure only appearances. That *perfervidum ingenium*, or fiery genius, attributed to them by Buchanan, is still a deep-seated characteristic of the people. On subjects which they regard as important, they sometimes manifest this excitability in a very striking manner; as, for instance, in their almost universal rising against Charles I. in defence of their favorite modes of worship and ecclesiastical polity. Generous affections, in which, as compared with the English, the Scotch might appear deficient, perhaps only take, in their case, somewhat different directions. They cherish, more than most people, a feeling of attachment for their native

country, and even the particular district and spot of their birth, for their remote as well as immediate kindred, and for everything which reminds them of what is honorable in the doings of those who went before them. A strong sense of religion is a conspicuous feature in the Scottish national character; clear, however, from all regard to external and what appear to them unimportant things connected with it. There is no country where a more decent attention is paid to the sabbath than in Scotland. It may at the same time be remarked, that their religion is more doctrinal than directly venerative or sentimental—a peculiarity which may be traced in the plainness of their forms of worship, as either its cause or its effect. There is a considerable tendency in the Scottish intellect to argumentative reasoning, and this shows itself in the service in their churches as well as in their philosophical literature. The domestic virtues flourish in much the same degree in Scotland as in England; but the humbler classes in North Britain are not nearly so remarkable for cleanliness as the lower English, and they have suffered of late years from the extensive use of ardent spirits. The rural laboring classes are remarkable for their steady industry and decent conduct; and it is only, perhaps, among the lower orders in large towns, that much moral deterioration has taken place. For centuries, the wandering disposition of the Scotch has been remarkable. An immense number of young persons every year leave their native country to push their fortune in the busier English cities, in public employment in India, in the colonies, or in other parts of the world. These persons have generally a tolerable education in proportion to their rank and prospects; and being found possessed of steadiness, fidelity, and perseverance, they rarely fail to improve their circumstances. We are here reminded of the advantage which Scotland has long enjoyed in the possession of a universally-diffused means of elementary instruction. This, though in some respects over-estimated, has at least insured that nearly every person reared in Scotland is not without some tincture of literature.

The population of Scotland at the end of the seventeenth century, did not probably exceed a million. In 1755, when an attempt was first made to ascertain it, it appears to have been about one million two hundred and sixty-five thousand three hundred and eighty. From that time the country made a start in manufacturing and commercial prosperity, as well as in improved modes of rural husbandry, and the population experienced accordingly a considerable increase, though not so great in proportion as the increase of wealth. The census, at different periods, since 1801, inclusive, gives the following results:—

1801,	-	-	-	1,599,068	1821,	-	-	-	2,093,456
1811,	-	-	-	1,805,688	1831,	-	-	-	2,365,114

The increase has taken place chiefly in large towns, a result of the progress of manufactures and commerce. It was ascertained that, of the total families in 1821, 130,679 were employed in agriculture, and 190,264 in trade, manufactures, and handicrafts; leaving a remainder of 126,997 subsisting otherwise. Since then, the proportion of the second class has probably experienced a large increase. The progress of population in Scotland has, according to Mr. McCulloch, “been less than its progress during the same period in England and Ireland; while there are good grounds for thinking that the wealth of Scotland has increased more rapidly than that of either of these two countries. This desirable result,” our author adds, “seems to have been owing principally to the consolidation of small farms in the low country, the introduction of sheep-farming into the Highlands, and the obstacles imposed, by the law of Scotland as to leases and the operation of the poor-laws, against the subdivision of land and the building of superfluous cottages. These circumstances, combined with the moral and religious habits of the people, and the general diffusion of education, have made marriages be deferred to a later period than in other parts of the empire, and have also led to a very extensive emigration. In consequence, the Scotch have advanced more rapidly than the English or Irish in wealth, and in the command of the necessaries and conveniences of life. Their progress in this respect has, indeed, been quite astonishing. The habits, diet, dress, and other accommodations of the people, have been signally improved.”

It has been shown, on the other hand, that the comforts of the people have not everywhere improved in the ratio of the general advance of wealth. That operation of the limited poor-laws of Scotland which Mr. McCulloch eulogises, has been shown,

by Professor Alison, of Edinburgh, to send annually great numbers of superannuated laborers and others into the large towns, where they form a dense population, living in semi-destitution, and in other circumstances unfavorable to health, and are thus exposed to fevers and other contagious maladies, which periodically sweep them off in large numbers. It is contended by the same writer, that the low condition in which the scanty provision for pauperism compels many to live, gives them reckless habits, and tends materially to increase a mean, squalid, and dangerous population. There is certainly much truth in these views. The sanitary condition of Glasgow forms a startling illustration of them. During five years, from 1835 to 1839 inclusive, the number of fever cases treated at the public expense in that city was 55,949, or about 11,000 per annum, and the deaths in the same period were 4,788. The population of Glasgow has risen from 151,540 in 1822, to 272,000 in 1840, and in that period the rate of mortality has been rapidly advancing. In 1822, the mortality was 3,408, or one in about $44\frac{1}{4}$ of the population; in 1825, it was 4,571, or as one in about $36\frac{1}{3}$. In 1828, the mortality increased to 5,534, which, at the then amount of the population, was one in 33—a proportion alarmingly high. Since then, however, the inhabitants of this great city have suffered still more severely. In the year of the Asiatic cholera, 1832, when the population was 209,230, the mortality reached the enormous amount of 9,654, or one in about $21\frac{1}{2}$; and again, in a year of severe fever (1837), when the population was estimated at 253,000, it reached 10,270, or one in about $24\frac{1}{2}$. It would appear as if, after such disastrous periods, the mortality becomes for some time lessened. After 1832, it rebounded to one in 36, and after 1837 to one in 37, or thereabouts. Probably this is in some measure owing to the effect of severe epidemics in carrying off so many of the least healthy of the people. It is to be remarked, that in these results no account is taken of still-born children, who, in the eighteen years before 1840, amounted to 8,763. The proportion of the still-born is startlingly high, being, in 1830, 471 out of 6,868, or about a fourteenth. In this fact alone, we can not help thinking we behold a strong proof of the amount of misery and unfavorable modes of living prevailing in Glasgow.

The average annual mortality in Glasgow was, for the period between 1822 and 1830, both inclusive, one in $38\frac{1}{4}$; for the period between 1831 and 1839, also both inclusive, one in nearly 32. At the latter date, if it were habitual, Glasgow would stand forth as one of the cities most fatal to human life in Europe. Another fact is most remarkable, that, of the deaths during these eighteen years, 43 per cent., *or not much short of the one half, are of children under five years of age, and 18 per cent. under one year of age.* It further appears, from minute evidence, that in the years of unusually great mortality, there is a larger proportion of deaths among the adult population, *showing how fatal the epidemics are to heads of families.* From one fourth to one fifth of the funerals in Glasgow are at the public expense—an impressive fact, seeing how it *connects poverty with mortality.*

CHAPTER XLII.

REMARKABLE NATURAL SCENERY.—NATURAL CURIOSITIES.

THE comparatively irregular surface of Scotland, or, as a geologist would remark, its being more generally formed of the primitive and early rocks, has caused the existence of much picturesque and romantic scenery, the attractions of which have been greatly heightened of late years by the works of the native poets and novelists, particularly Sir Walter Scott. The Highlands may be said to form one wide tract of such scenery, though some parts are considerably more beautiful than others. Fine scenery in Scotland generally lies along the beds of lakes or the vales of rivers. The chief tracts are the following:—

LOWER PERTHSHIRE.

The Trosachs and Loch Katrine.—This is a beautiful district, situated at the distance of little more than twenty-five miles from Stirling, and remarkable as the

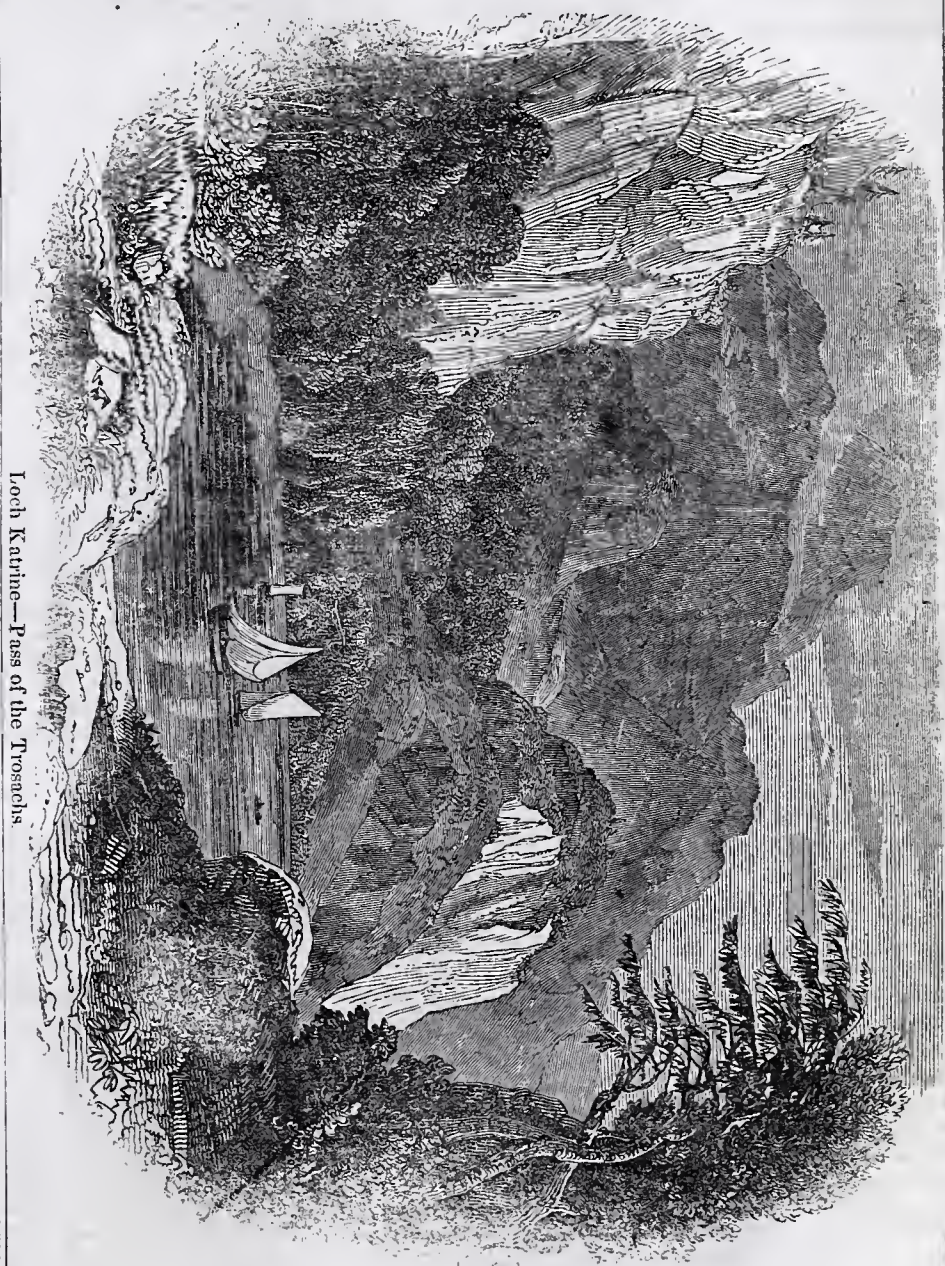
scenery of Scott's *Lady of the Lake*. It may be said to commence at the large Lowland village of Callander, which is only sixteen miles from Stirling. This village lies in the bosom of the valley of the Teith, with lofty bills on all sides except the east, and apparently occupying the last patch of level ground before the traveller enters the Highlands. The surrounding scenery is worthy of being explored; two places, in particular, should be visited. The first is the *Fall of Bracklin*, situated among the hills, at the distance of a mile and a half in a northeasterly direction from the village. It consists of a series of cascades formed by the impetuous rushing of a mountain stream, termed the Keltie, down a rugged rocky ravine. Each cascade is from eight to ten feet in depth, and altogether, the falls may measure upward of a hundred feet, before they finally settle in a profound receptacle at the bottom. Above the chasm there is thrown a rustic foot-bridge, from which the view of the falls, when the water is large, is particularly grand. This spot is worthy of being visited by geologists, on account of the singular masses of rifted rock over and among which the water impetuously dashes.

The other place to which we would draw attention is the *Pass of Leny*. This is a narrow opening, about a mile to the northwest of the village, which affords access, as its name imports, from the low country into the wild recesses of the Highlands. While the vale of the Teith continues toward the west, the road to the pass of Leny strikes off in a northwesterly direction. Skirted with waving woods, and bound in by lofty mountains, this is a scene of great sublimity. A rapid river, which issues from the mountain lake denominated Loch Lubnaig, hurries through the narrow vale over a series of little cascades, yielding a music harsh and wild, in strict keeping with the ruggedness of the scene. The road leads along the brink of Loch Lubnaig, to the small parish village of Balquidder, where, in the churchyard, the grave of the celebrated freebooter Rob Roy is still pointed out.

The road toward the Trosachs pursues a tortuous line along the base of a mountain range skirting the north side of the valley. In the bottom of the vale lie in succession two long stripes of water, or lakes, called Loch Vennachar and Loch Achray. Immediately before approaching the eastern extremity of the last of these lakes, which is by much the smallest, a road leads off to the right, into the vale of *Glenfinlas*—a tract of ten miles in extent, formerly a royal hunting forest, destitute of the smallest symptom of habitation or of cultivation, and which any one who wishes to have a complete idea of an Ossianic desert, in all its sterile and lonely wildness, may be recommended to traverse. The bridge crossing the stream which descends from this vale, is called the Bridge of Turk, on account of a wild boar, which had done much mischief in the neighborhood, having been slain at the place in times long bygone.

On coming to the head of Loch Achray, you approach the Trosachs. At this point is situated an inn, having a strange Gaelic name, sounding something like Ardkenrockran. This is the last human habitation on the route, and here travellers usually quit their vehicles in order to walk the remainder of the distance; the road, however, will accommodate a chaise to the verge of Loch Katrine. The Trosachs is simply a concluding portion of the vale, about a mile in extent, and adjoining to the bottom of Loch Katrine. From the tumultuous confusion of little rocky eminences, of all the most fantastic and extraordinary forms, which lie throughout the bottom of the vale, and are everywhere shagged with trees and shrubs, nature here wears an aspect of roughness and wildness, of tangled and inextricable boskiness, totally unexampled. The valley being contracted, hills, moreover, rise on each side to a great height, which, being entirely covered by birches, hazels, oaks, hawthorns, and mountain ashes, contribute greatly to the general effect. The meaning of the word *trosach* in some measure describes the scene—a rough or *bristled* piece of territory. The author of the *Lady of the Lake* has described it as “a wildering scene of mountains, rocks, and woods, thrown together in disorderly groups.”

At the termination of the Trosachs, Loch Katrine commences: it measures about ten miles in length, and is justly reckoned one of the most beautiful in Scotland. Its principal charm consists in the singular rugged wildness of its mountainous sides, and its pretty rocket islets, rising to a considerable height out of the water, and tufted over with trees and shrubs. Near the eastern extremity of the lake, there is precisely such an island as that which is described in the poem as the residence of the outlawed Douglas and his family. To fulfil the wishes of the imagination—if such a phrase



Loch Katrine—Pass of the Trossachs

may be used—Lady Willoughby D'Eresby, the proprietrix of the ground, has erected upon the island a sort of tower or cottage, such as that which the said family occupied; and he must be a traveller of more than ordinary churlishness who could refrain from indulging in the pleasing deception thus created.

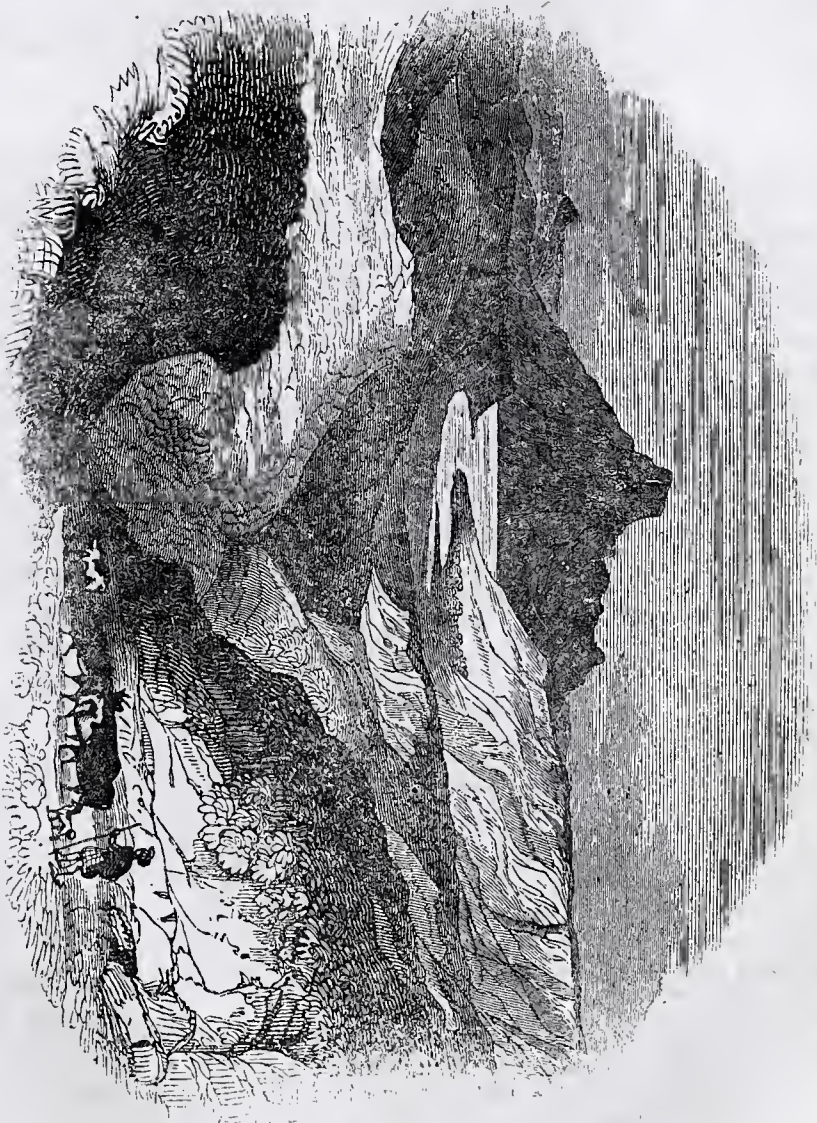
The view of the lake, on approaching it on the east, is rather confined, but from the top of the rocky and woody mount above, the prospect is more extensive, and of that singular beauty which the author of the *Lady of the Lake* has described in the following passage:—

—————“ Gleaming with the setting sun,
One burnished sheet of living gold,
Loch Katrine lay beneath him rolled,
In all her length far-winding lay,
With promontory, creek, and bay,
And islands that, empurpled bright,
Floated amid the livelier light,
And mountains that like giants stand,
To sentinel enchanted land.
High on the south, huge Ben-venue
Down on the lake its masses threw—
Crag, knoll, and mound, confusedly hurled,
The fragments of an earlier world;
A wildering forest feathered o'er,
His ruined sides and summit hoar;
While on the north, through middle air,
Ben-an heaved high his forehead bare.”

The beautiful scenery connected with Loch Earn, may be said to commence at Comrie, a village about twenty miles to the west of Perth, and remarkable as the place of all others in the United Kingdom where earthquakes take place most frequently. The vale of the Earn is here, and even lower down, full of natural and acquired beauty. Passing upward toward the lake, the scenery becomes more interesting at every step. At that part of the vale which adjoins to the bottom of the lake, its character is similar to that of the Trosachs, at the corresponding extremity of Loch Katrine, though less minutely rugged and picturesque. Passing through the extensive grove at the bottom of the valley, now within sight and hearing of the ever-glancing and ever-murmuring Earn, and then beyond both, as the road approaches and recedes from the water-side, the traveller gets frequent broken glimpses of the grand and wildly-serrated tops of the neighboring mountains, whose sides present a strange piebald mixture, by no means deficient in effect, of alternate bare crag and incumbent verdure—a beautiful confusion, indeed, of gray and green—relieved occasionally by the darker branches of the birch and weeping-ash.

Loch Earn extends nine miles in length, and generally about one mile in breadth. It is thus described by Dr. McCulloch: “Limited as are the dimensions of Loch Earn, it is exceeded in beauty by few of our lakes, as far as it is possible for many beauties to exist in so small a space. I will not say that it presents a great number of distinct landscapes adapted for the pencil; but such as it does possess, are remarkable for their consistency of character, and for a combination of sweetness and simplicity, with a grandeur of manner, scarcely to be expected within such narrow bounds. Its style is that of a lake of far greater dimensions; the hills which bound it being lofty, and bold, and rugged, with a variety of character not found in many of even far greater magnitude and extent. It is a miniature and model of scenery that might well occupy ten times the space. Yet the eye does not feel this. There is nothing trifling or small in the details; nothing to diminish its grandeur of style, and tell us we are contemplating a reduced copy. On the contrary, there is a perpetual contest between our impressions and our reasonings: we know that a few short miles comprehend the whole, and yet we feel as if it were a landscape of many miles—a lake to be ranked among those of first order and dimensions. While its mountains thus rise in majestic simplicity to the sky, terminating in bold, and various, and rocky outlines, the surfaces of the declivities are equally bold and various; enriched with precipices and masses of protruding rock, with deep hollows and ravines, and with the courses of innumerable torrents which pour from above, and, as they descend, become skirted with trees till they lose themselves in the waters of the lake. Wild woods also ascend along their surface, in all that irregularity of distribution so peculiar to these rocky mountains; less solid and continuous than at Loch Lomond; less scattered and romantic than at Loch Katrine, but, from these very causes, aiding

Distant View of Loch Awe.



to confer upon Loch Earn a character entirely its own." In passing along Loch Earn, it is recommended to go by the road on the south side. The house of Ardvoirdlich (Stewart, Esq.), occurs about mid-way; its name recalls the memory of Stewart of Ardvoirdlich, a partisan of Montrose, who killed his friend Lord Kilpont in the royalist camp at Collace, September 5, 1644—the incident on which Scott founded his *Legend of Montrose*. The woody promontories which here project into the lake are remarkably beautiful. About a mile and a half from the west end of the lake, occur the castle and falls of Edinample, a scene of distinguished loveliness, such as people, in the spirit of compliment, say, might give occasion to a volume, and which, rather strange to tell, has actually done so.

The upper extremity of this beautiful lake, where the general merits of the scenery may be said in some measure to be altogether condensed and combined, is enlivened by the little village and inn of Loch Earn Head.

MIDDLE PERTHSHIRE.

The small town of Dunkeld in Middle Perthshire, so celebrated for the fine scenery in its neighborhood, is situated on the north bank of the Tay, at the distance of fifteen miles from Perth and twenty-four from Kenmore. Nestling beneath steep and woody mountains, with a noble river running in front, across which there is an elegant bridge, the first view of Dunkeld, in approaching it from the south, is very striking. The village consists of two small streets, in which are two excellent inns, affording extensive accommodation for the tourists who flock hither in summer. At Dunkeld, attention is called to the venerable remains of a cathedral, and the duke of Athole's mansion, styled Dunkeld house; but our present business is with the natural scenery. Most of this is in pleasure-grounds connected with the mansion.

Craig-y-Barns, a lofty hill, wooded to the top, which rises behind the house, is a resort of tourists for the sake of the magnificent view which it commands. They are also conducted by guides to the scenery of the *Bran*, which joins the Tay on its opposite bank near the village of Inver—the birthplace and usual residence, it may be mentioned, of the late Neil Gow, so famous wherever Scottish music is known, at once for his performance on the violin and his excellent compositions. Near this place the tourist is conducted into a tasteful hermitage or summer-house, named Ossian's hall, where he sees before him a picture representing the aged Ossian singing to some females the tales "of the days that are past," while his dog, his hunting-spear, and bow and arrows, lie at his side. On a sudden, this picture slips aside, and discloses to the view of the surprised stranger a splendid cataract, which dashes down the rocks immediately opposite to the building, and the waters of which are reflected from a range of mirrors disposed around the hall. To use the words of Dr. Clarke, "The whole cataract foams at once before you, roaring with the noise of thunder. It is hardly possible to conceive a spectacle more striking. If it be objected that machinery contrivance of this sort wears too much the appearance of scenic representation, I should reply, that as scenic representation I admire it, and as the finest specimen of that species of exhibition; which, doubtless, without the aid of such a deception, would have been destitute of half the effect it is now calculated to produce. A little below this edifice, a simple but pleasing arch is thrown across the narrow chasm of the rocks, through which the river flows with vast rapidity. About a mile higher up the Bran, is the *Rumbling bridge*, thrown across a chasm of granite, about fifteen feet wide. The bed of the river, for several hundred feet above the arch, is copiously charged with massive fragments of rock, over which the river foams and roars like the waters at Ivy bridge in Devonshire. Approaching the bridge, it precipitates itself with great fury through the chasm, casting a thick cloud of spray or vapor high above the bridge, and agitating by its fury even the prodigious masses which form the surrounding rocks. Few objects will more amply repay the traveller for his trouble of visiting them, than the woody precipices, the long, winding, shady groves, the ruins, and cataracts of Dunkeld."

In the angle formed by the junction of the Bran and Tay rises *Craig Vinean*, a broad shadowy mass of firs, reared against the sky. A neighboring eminence obtains the name of the *King's Seat*, in consequence of King William the Lion having been in the habit of stationing himself upon it, in order to shoot at the droves of deer which his attendants caused to pass through the adjacent hollows. It is related that Queen Mary also practised the same sport at this place, and on one occasion narrowly escaped destruction from an infuriated stag.

Aberfeldy, Kenmore, and Killin.—Tourists frequently proceed from Dunkeld along the bank of the Tay, in order to comprehend the tract of scenery here indicated. *Aberfeldy*, a village not in itself remarkable, is celebrated for the fine cataract, formed by a small tributary of the Tay, in its neighborhood, and near the house of Moness. The tourist is conducted by a guide along the thickly-wooded banks of this rivulet, till, about a mile from the village, he reaches the first of the celebrated waterfalls of Moness. A little sub-tributary rill here pours, in a series of cascades, down the side of the glen, amid a natural scene of the greatest beauty. A little further up the main dell, the rivulet pours along a steep natural staircase, of a hundred feet in perpendicular descent, the sides of which rise abruptly and ruggedly, clothed with the most beautiful natural plants. This scene is described by Burns in one of his songs:—

“ The braes ascend like lofty wa’s,
The foaming stream deep roaring fa’s,
O’erhung wi’ fragrant spreading shaws,
The birks of Aberfeldy.
The hoary cliffs are crowned wi’ flowers;
White o’er the linn the burnie pours,
And, rising, weets, wi’ misty showers,
The birks of Aberfeldy.”

At a third cataract, higher up, the pathway crosses the stream, and descends on the other side of the dell. Pennant describes the Moness falls as “an epitome of everything that can be admired in the curiosity of waterfalls.”

A ride of six miles along the Tay brings the traveller to *Kenmore*, a village of famed beauty, situated at the east end of Loch Tay, at the place where the river issues from that sheet of water. This is one of the chief stages, or *points*, in the tour of Perthshire, and it is provided, accordingly, with a good inn. Lofty hills ascend on each side: on one hand there is a noble lake; on the other, toward *Aberfeldy*, stretch the splendid grounds around Taymouth castle, the seat of the marquis of Breadalbane. This magnificent house—truly worthy of the great chief and land-proprietor who owns it—is about a mile to the east of Kenmore, the exterior gateway of the park opening from the street of the village. It is a dark gray castellated edifice, of modern aspect, situated in the low ground beside the river, with a beautiful backing of woody hills rising behind it. This princely place and its adjuncts made a deep impression on the mind of Burns, who visited it in 1787, and thus described it:—

“ The outstretching lake, embosomed ’mong the hills,
The eye with wonder and amazement fills;
The Tay, meandering sweet, in infant pride;
The palace rising by his verdant side;
The lawns, wood-fringed, in nature’s native taste;
The hillocks dropped in nature’s careless haste;
The arches striding o’er the new-born stream;
The village glittering in the noon-tide beam.”

A guide is required to introduce a stranger to all the beauties of the Taymouth Park, among which the most remarkable is the Berceau Walk, a grand avenue of four hundred and fifty yards in length, which reminds one of some lofty cathedral, “casting a dim religious light.”

Loch Tay is a fine sheet of water, fifteen miles in length, lying between two ranges of hills. In the centre of the northwest side rises Ben Lawers, to the height of 4,015 feet. An island near Kenmore formerly contained a priory of Augustines, founded by Alexander I., in the year 1122. Here his queen, Sybilla, daughter of Henry I., of England, was buried. Loch Tay is remarkable, like some other Scottish lakes, for having been, on several occasions, greatly agitated at the moment of the occurrence of earthquakes in distant parts of the world. It is from fifteen to a hundred fathoms deep. There is a road on each side to Killin, the distance being sixteen miles. Both abound alike in fine scenery, though by pursuing that along the south side a view will be obtained of the lofty Ben Lawers, which will scarcely be seen in such perfection on the opposite side. The mixture of wood, rock, and cultivated field, which the traveller finds skirting Loch Tay, will surprise him with its happy effect. The old system of minute farms prevails here in all its pristine vigor, and a prodigious number of rude and picturesque cottages necessarily enter into the composition of the landscape.

Killin, a straggling little village, situated in the low vale at the head of the loch, is celebrated for the varied beauty of its scenery. Here two rivers, the Dochart and the Lochy, come down out of different glens, and join their waters with each other and with the lake. The vale of the latter is peculiarly beautiful; but that of the Dochart, extending up to Tyndrum, upon the great west road, is only stern and wild. On arriving at the town, the Dochart breaks over a strange expanse of table rock in a thousand little cascades, so that the traveller, who crosses a bridge just at the place, is bewildered, as he looks around, with the flashing and sparkling water which everywhere meets his eye.

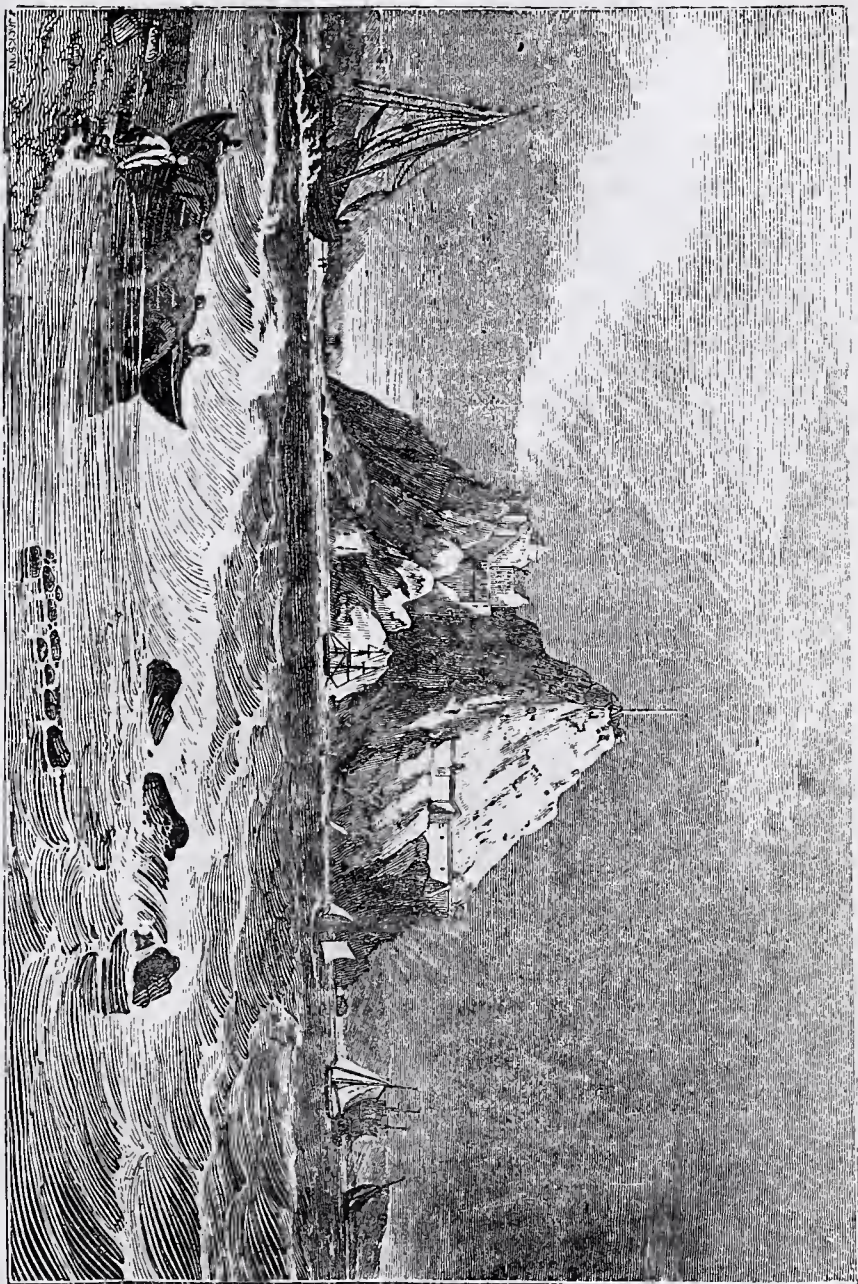
"Killin," says Dr. McCulloch, "is the most extraordinary collection of extraordinary scenery in Scotland, unlike everything else in the country, and perhaps on earth, and a perfect picture-gallery in itself, since you can not move three yards without meeting a new landscape. A busy artist might here draw a month, and not exhaust it. It is, indeed, scarcely possible to conceive so many distinct and marked objects collected within so small a space, and all so adapted to each other as always to preserve one character, and, at the same time, to produce so endless a number of distinct and beautiful landscapes. To find, however, all that Killin has to give of this nature, it is necessary to pry about into corners, like a cat, as the separate scenes are produced by very slight changes of position, and are often found in very unexpected places. Fir-trees, rocks, torrents, mills, bridges, houses—these produce the great bulk of the middle landscape, under endless combinations, while the distances more constantly are found in the surrounding hills, in the varied woods, in the bright expanse of the lake, and the minute ornaments of the distant valley, in the rocky and bold summit of Craig Cailleach, and in the lofty vision of Ben Lawers, which towers like a huge giant to the clouds, the monarch of the scene."

On the northwest shore of Loch Tay, near Killin, stands the mouldering ruin of Finlarig castle, built by Sir Colin Campbell, of Glenurchy, between 1513 and 1523, and the seat of the family before their removal to Balloch or Taymouth. "We observe, also," says a traveller, writing in 1802, "situated on a plain at the west end of the lake, a neat, but small mansion (Kinmel), belonging to Mr. McNab, the chieftain of that name. The family burial ground, *Inish-Mhui*, close by the house, is pointed out to the stranger as a place of singular beauty. It undoubtedly is such, and is highly calculated to raise ideas of tenderness and sorrow; as an insulated grove of tall pines, whose solemn aspect and deep silence are in fine harmony with the waters around it, the blue expanse of the lake calm and unruffled, and the sublime height of the mountains that rise from its margin, are objects well suited to correspond with the belief that Fingal sleeps here in the dust."

DUNBARTONSHIRE.

A tract of beautiful scenery extends through Dunbartonshire, from the banks of the Clyde along those of the Leven, and including the magnificent Loch Lomond, the largest and probably most beautiful of our British lakes.

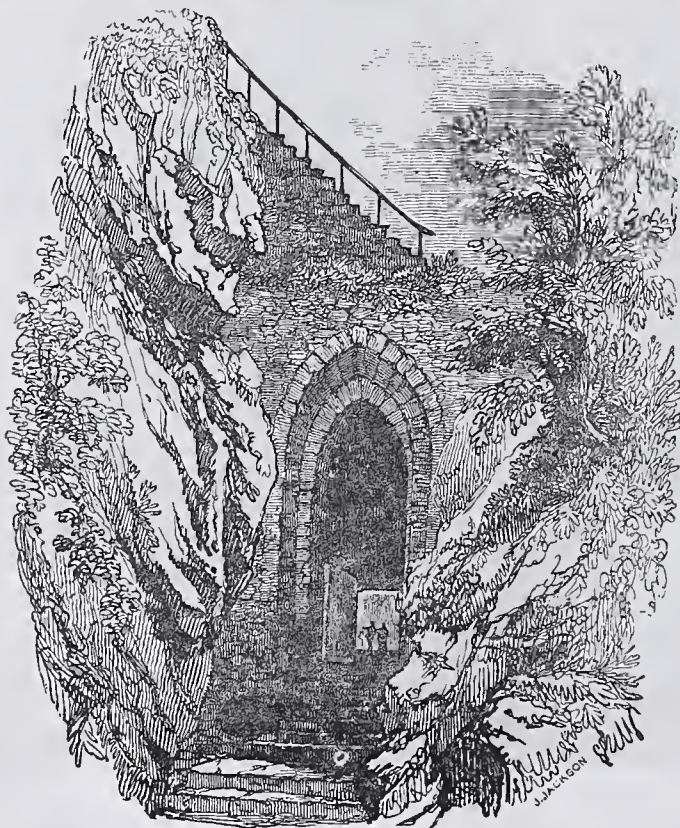
In passing down the Clyde, after having proceeded about fifteen miles from Glasgow, the traveller finds himself opposite to a very lofty dark-colored rock, rising from the level sands, almost close to the right bank of the river. This is the castle of Dunbarton. It appears to have been a military fortress almost from the first occupation of this part of the island. Under the name of *Areluid*, or *Alcluid* (that is, the place on the Clyde), it is said to have been the capital, first, of a Caledonian, and afterward of a British or Welsh kingdom, which was in early times established in this district. Its modern name, Dunbarton, there can be little doubt, is merely a corruption of *Dunbritton*, that is, the town of the Britons. Bede, who flourished in the beginning of the eighth century, speaks of it as the principal fortress which the Britons possessed in his days. When the Saxons extended their conquests to the north, all this district of Scotland, as far as to the Frith of Forth, was for a long time a sort of disputed territory, and was sometimes in possession of the Saxons, and sometimes in that of their northern enemies, the Caledonians or Picts. The Saxon kingdom of Bernicia was considered as properly embracing the whole country to the banks of the Forth. Dunbarton, however, and probably other strongholds in the same region, were captured more than once from their nominal Saxon sovereigns by the more ancient occupants of the island. At last, however, in 756, Dunbarton, after having been for some years in the hands of the Picts, was recovered by Edbert, king of Northumberland, the garrison being obliged to surrender on account of want of pro-



Distant View of Dunbarton Castle.

visions, and it continued for several ages afterward to form a portion of the Saxon or English dominions. Some writers have thought it probable that Dunbarton was even occupied as a station by the Romans; and the tourist Pennant is convinced that the Roman fleet must have anchored, on one occasion, immediately under the rock. A fragment of an old building crowning one of the summits has been conjectured to be the remains of a Roman pharos, or lighthouse. The rampart erected by Agricola between the Firths of Forth and Clyde, as well as that subsequently raised by Lollius Urbicus, the lieutenant of Antoninus Pius, nearly in the same direction, terminated in this neighborhood; and traces of the latter (popularly known by the name of Graham's dyke) are still to be seen not far from the town of Dunbarton.

The town stands on the left or east bank of the Leven, about three quarters of a mile to the north of the castle, which is situated at the confluence of that river with the Clyde. On occasion of an unusually high tide, the rock is sometimes quite insulated; but in general the ground is dry between it and the town. Dunbarton was made a royal burgh by Alexander II., in 1221. The rock itself was wont to be looked upon as the key to the western highlands, and as therefore one of the most important of the Scottish fortresses. It is, as we have mentioned, of very great height; and about half way up it divides and forms two summits, with a large chasm or hollow between. In this hollow is a well, about fourteen feet deep, which affords a constant supply of water. Dunbarton certainly would not now stand a well-conducted assault above a few hours; but it used to be deemed all but inaccessible, and therefore impregnable, except by the expedient of starving the garrison. There was anciently a track by which it could be ascended from the northern side; but that has been long built up, and the only access to the buildings now is from the south. Of these buildings, the principal is the governor's house, which is fortified by a few cannon. The garrison consists merely of a small number of invalids.



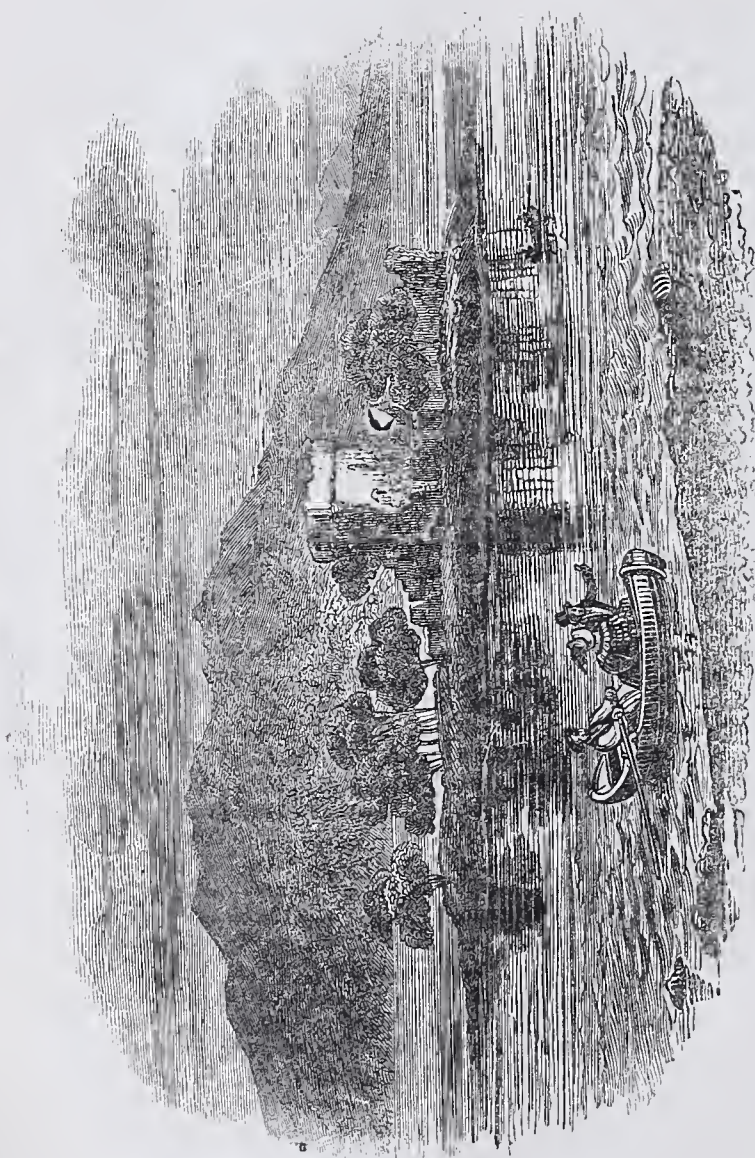
Gate between the upper and lower parts of Dunbarton Castle.

The substance of this rock is a basaltic formation of black whinstone, and it is in several parts magnetic—a circumstance which is noticed by Buchanan, who sup-

poses, however, that at a particular place a large loadstone is fastened in the rock, and has become imperceptibly united with it. Most basaltic formations possess magnetic power.

Passing the town of Dunbarton, the tourist proceeds upward along the vale of the Leven, a scene of singular beauty, filled with thriving villages and elegant mansions. The road, at the distance of two miles from the town, passes the old mansion-house of Dalquharn, in which, in the year 1721, the author of Roderick Random first saw light. Archibald Smollett, the father of the novelist, was the fourth son of Sir James Smollett of Bonhill, and, having married against his father's will, was residing here, in possession of one of the farms of the family property, at the time of the birth of his illustrious child. In a field on the opposite or west side of the road, there is an obelisk to the memory of the novelist, erected and inscribed by his cousin-german, James Smollett of Bonhill. Immediately beyond, the road passes through the populous modern village of Renton, occupied by persons engaged in the neighboring bleachfields, and taking its name from that of a lady married into the Smollett family. This, and another similar village named Alexandria, a little further on, together with the appearance of various works on a large scale scattered over the landscape, testify that industry of a different kind from that which becomes "embrowned with toil," has taken possession of the limpid waters of the Leven, to which, therefore, the beautiful ode of Smollett is no longer strictly applied. Bonhill, the ancient seat of the novelist's family, is opposite to Alexandria. Several other mansions of handsome appearances enliven the road before it arrives at Balloch (town at the foot of the lake), a small village and inn at the southern extremity of Loch Lomond, four and a quarter miles from Dunbarton. From this place a steamer, on earth at least "yelept Euphrosyne," starts every morning to conduct tourists along the lake.

Loch Lomond measures twenty-three miles in length from north to south; its breadth, where greatest, at the southern extremity, is five miles, from which it gradually grows narrower between the enclosing hills, till it terminates in a mountain streamlet. The whole aqueous surface is calculated at thirty-one and a quarter square miles, or twenty thousand English acres, and it is studded by above thirty isles, mostly at the southern extremity. These islands, together with the shores of the lake, are in general clothed with dark wood, which gave occasion to a distinction very judiciously drawn a few years ago by a Swiss tourist between Lausanne and Loch Lomond: "Our lake," he said, "is the fair beauty—yours the black." The first isle that occurs is a long narrow one named Inch Murrin, at the southern extremity of which there is an old ruined fortalice, called Lennox castle, said to have formerly been a residence of the earls of Lennox. This isle is now the property of the duke of Montrose, who employs it for the keeping of deer. In succession from Inch Murrin, toward the northeast, occur Inch Cro (the isle of cattle), Torr Inch (the wood isle), and Inch Caillach (the island of women, having been the site of a nunnery). On the south side of Inch Caillach is Clar Inch (flat island), a very little member of the archipelago; at the north end the ruins of a castle are to be seen under water, testifying that the surface of the lake must have risen in the course of ages. Inch Caillach, which formerly gave name to the parish of Buchanan, and was the burial place of the Macgregors, has on its north side Inch Fadd (long island), which bears grain and pasture, and near which is Ellendaroch (the small rugged island). Another group, to the northward, stretch between the peninsula of Rosdoo, on the west side of the lake, and Strathcashel point on the east. Inch Tavanagh, the first in this group, and which derives its name from having once been the residence of a monk, contains one hundred and fifty acres, partly covered with wood; it is the highest island in the lake. At a little distance to the south, the ruins of Galbraith castle, once the residence of a family of that name, start up from the water. To the east of Inch Tavanagh are Inch Conagan, covered with oak and fir, and Inch Moan, a low isle correctly described by its name, which signifies the island of moss. Still further to the east are Inch Cruin, on which is an asylum for insane persons, and Buc-inch (goat-island). North from these lie Inch Lonaig, one hundred and fifty acres in extent, and bearing many old yews, formerly of great use in furnishing the materials of bows and arrows. Of the whole thirty islands, the remainder are unimportant. South of Luss, the depth of the lake is rarely more than twenty fathoms; in the northern and narrower part it ranges from sixty to one hundred fathoms; and in the places where deepest never



Loch Leven.

freezes. In ancient times, Loch Lomond was famed for three wonders—"waves without winds, fish without fins, and a floating island." The first phenomenon is attributed to a peculiar atmospheric effect, not easily described, but which has also been observed on the Cumberland lakes; vipers swimming from island to island account for the second; the floating island is supposed to have been a detached fragment of moss, or a matted mass of aquatic plants, which ultimately fixed itself near the west side of Inch Conagan. The lake abounds in delicious fish.

Loch Lomond is skirted on the west side by the road from Dunbarton to Inverary. Less than a mile from the lower end of the lake this road passes Cameron house, long the seat of the Smolletts of Bonhill, and described as such in the novel of Humphrey Clinker, where we have many panegyrics upon its scenery. A little further on, the fine modern mansion of Belretiro overhangs the road upon the left. Here, through a fine vista, appears the polished expanse of Loch Lomond, its large islands, and the soft hills in the distance—a view that never fails to arrest the attention of the traveller. The objects that crowd into this scene are so finely diversified in form, in situation, and in color, as to compose a picture at once beautiful and impressive. At the seventh mile-stone, upon the left, is Arden, the property of H. Buchanan, Esq., environed with woods, and placed at the bottom of a lofty hill called Dunfion, or the hill of Fingal, tradition reporting it to have been one of the hunting-seats of that hero. Somewhat further on, and passing Nether Ross upon the left, the traveller crosses a small river called the Water of Fruin, which falls into the lake. It rises in Glenfruin, or Vale of Lamentation, so called, it is said, from a dreadful slaughter of the Colquhouns by the Macgregors, in 1602, and on account of which the Macgregors were, for nearly two centuries, unceasingly persecuted by government. The promontory of Rosdoo, which forms a beautiful situation for the mansion of the same name (Colquhoun of Luss, Bart.), is then passed; after which a scene of uninterrupted beauty continues all the way to Luss, twelve miles from Dunbarton.

Luss, a delightful little village, on a promontory which juts into the lake, is much resorted to in summer, on account of its being a convenient station for tourists in search of the picturesque. One of the finest points for enjoying the scenery of Loch Lomond and the environs of Luss, is Stronehill, to the north of the village. At this point, about one third of the way up a lofty hill, the whole breadth of the lake is spanned by the eye, including

—"all the fairy crowds
Of islands which together lie,
As quietly as spots of sky
Among the evening clouds."

From this point, the isles appear distinctly separated from each other, but not so much so as to give the idea of a map or bird-eye view, which a higher point of view would undoubtedly present. The prospect is bounded on the south by the distant hills which intervene between Loch Lomond and the Clyde, and which here appear, in comparison with the mountains around, to be only gentle swells; the Leven, its vale, the rock of Dunbarton, and even the surface of the Clyde, are in the same direction conspicuous. Toward the east, the vale of the Endrick, its principal seats, the obelisk erected to the memory of Buchanan at Killearn, and the Lennox hills, are also distinctly visible. Turning to the north, the lake is seen to wind far away among the mountains.

At Inveruglas, three and a half miles beyond Luss, there is a ferry to Rowardennan inn, the usual starting point for those who desire to ascend to the top of Ben Lomond. This mountain, situated in the county of Stirling, is three thousand two hundred and forty feet above the level of the lake, which is twenty-two above the level of the sea. At Rowardennan, when looking northward, it almost completely fills up the view. It consists in three great stages, each rising above the other; these again are divided into a number of lesser swelling knolls, some of which are covered with heath and crags, while others are verdant and smooth. The distance from the inn to the top of the mountain is six miles of a continued ascent, which, in general, requires about three hours. From the summit, a varied and most extensive prospect opens upon the eye in every direction. The lake, lately contemplated with so much pleasure, now appears a small pool, and its rich and diversified islands as so many specks upon its surface. Beyond it, and to the left, appear the vale of the Endrick, the distant county of Lanark, its towns, and the mountain of Tinto;

directly south, the outlet of the lake, the river Leven, its winding and rich banks, the castle of Dunbarton, and the counties of Renfrew and Ayr; nearly in the same direction, the firth of Clyde, the rock of Ailsa, the islands of Arran and Bute, with the more distant Atlantic. The coast of Ireland and the Isle of Man, are, when the atmosphere is clear, within the boundary of the view. To the east are seen the counties of Stirling and the Lothians, with the windings of the Forth, and the castles of Stirling and Edinburgh. The prospect to the north is marked by grandeur alone. Immense mountains, piled as it were above each other, and extending from the borders of Stirlingshire to the western ocean, with the indentations of the coast on one side and the lakes of Perthshire on the other, form altogether a scene which may be conceived, but can not be properly described.

Ben Lomond has this remarkable advantage as a hill, that it is not overcrowded or crowded up with surrounding hills. It seems to be sole monarch of a vast undisputed territory. Nowhere, therefore, is there a better idea to be obtained of the Highland country than on its summit. The mountain itself, besides, affords a great variety of scenery. To the south it stretches out into a slope of a very gentle declivity. The north side is awfully abrupt, and presents a conclave precipice of many hundred yards in depth. He must possess firm nerves who can approach the brink and look down unmoved. The rock is said to be two thousand feet in sheer descent.

About four and a half miles to the north of Inveruglas, the Dunbarton and Inverary road reaches the lonely but comfortable inn of Tarbert, where there is also a ferry by which Ben Lomond may be approached. At this inn the road leaves the shore of the lake, and proceeds to the westward by the head of Loch Long, and so into Argyllshire. At Iversnaid mill there is a little cataract, the scene alluded to by Wordsworth in his address to a Highland girl:—

“ Sweet Highland girl! a very shower
Of beauty is thy earthly dower.”

On the heights above, beside the way to Loch Katrine, are the remains of Iversnaid fort, erected by the government in 1713 to check the turbulence of the Macgregors: near it is a little burial-ground, in which the garrison had interred their dead, and containing one or two monuments, which have long forgot to tell the familiar tale confided to them. The fort was taken by Rob Roy in 1716, but afterward regained and re-established. It is said that the amiable General Wolfe at one time resided in it.*

FIRTH OF CLYDE—ARGYLLSHIRE.

This is a tract of scenery much admired and visited, on account of its presenting a fine combination of inland seas with islands of varied surface and chains of rugged mountains.

The Clyde expands into an estuary a little way below Dunbarton. There, while the comparatively low hills of Renfrewshire, with the thriving towns of Port-Glasgow and Greenock, are seen on the left, attention is called on the right to the towering alps of Argyllshire, sometimes ironically called the duke of Argyll's bowling-green. The Argyllshire shores are here decorated with a long succession of villas, the favorite summer residences of the more affluent citizens of Glasgow. This mountainous region is penetrated by several inlets of the sea, one of which, named Loch Long, is twenty-four miles long. Another, named the Holy Loch, is shorter, but surrounded by equally picturesque ground. There is also an inland lake, Loch Eck, which presents very beautiful scenery.

* “ On the east shore of Loch Lomond, and the west side of Ben Lomond, or what is called Craig rostan, a narrow alpine road conducts through scenery of gigantic features. Here tradition, countenanced by Barbour, has assigned to Robert Bruce a cave, in which he sojourned a night when passing from Strathfillan, after the nearly fatal combat with Macdougall of Lorn. Here, too, a steep shelving rock is pointed out as what is called ‘ Rob Roy's Prison,’ where that Highland laird is reported to have stowed such of his vassals as he had adjudged to durance. One of his tenants had not paid his rent when it became due, Rob, suspending him on a rope by the shoulders, let him down into the fastness. Having drawn him up at the end of twenty-four hours, he told him that, if he failed to pay by a particular time, he should draw him up by the neck. North of Craigrostan is what is said to have been used by him as his cave. It is a rude subterraneous recess, formed by a huge avalanche of the mountain. Here, according to tradition, he rendezvoused with his followers.”—*Stirling's edition of Nimmo's Stirlingshire.*

Separated from this rugged district by only a narrow strait, is the island of *Bute*, displaying features only a little less highland, and remarkable for the amenity of its climate, on which account it is much resorted to by persons affected with pulmonary ailments. It measures fourteen miles in length by about four in breadth, and contains some beautiful strips of level territory, in one of which is situated the mansion of the marquis of Bute. The beautiful town of Rothesay, a favorite sea-bathing station, occupies a fine situation on the northeast extremity of the island. Here are the ruins of a palace which formed the ordinary residence of the earliest sovereigns of the house of Stuart. The *Kyles of Bute*, as the strait above mentioned is named, is remarkable for the fine vistas of alpine scenery which it opens up to the view of the tourist.

To the south of Bute lies the island of *Arran*, twenty-two miles long, and which entirely consists of a range of rocky mountains, the serrated outlines of which, as seen from the neighboring seas and shores, is extremely grand. The loftiest summit, Goat-fell (called by the natives *Goath-bhein*, the hill of storms), is two thousand eight hundred feet high. Arran bears great value in the eyes of the geologist, on account of its presenting, within a narrow space, an epitome of the whole geological structure of Scotland. Its pathless glens and picturesque hills commend it equally to visitors who do not inquire into the mysteries of stratification and volcanic agency. The whole island, excepting a few small farms, belongs to the duke of Hamilton, whose ancestor, James first Lord Hamilton, obtained it from the crown on his marrying Mary, the eldest daughter of James II., in the year 1474. There are now a number of large farms enclosed, subdivided, and well cultivated, having fine stocks of cattle and comfortable farm-steadings, where formerly there were numerous huts without chimneys or windows, and ridges running in all directions without a single enclosure or subdivision. At the north end of the island, under the lofty and isolated summit called the Cock of Arran, a small bay, denominated Loch Ranza, serves as a natural harbor, in which capacity it is turned to great advantage in the herring fishery. On the shore of the bay there are a few scattered houses, an inn, an ancient castle in ruins, and a preaching station. A road sweeping round the east shore of the island leads to Brodick bay, at the bottom of which there is a beautiful tract of low and sloping ground, ornamented with some fine wood, containing a hamlet, which forms a favorite resort for sea-bathing. On the adjacent height, amid ancient woods, is the ancient chateau of Brodick, a mansion of the duke of Hamilton. From this place a road strikes across the island, and opens up some magnificent scenery. Two or three miles to the southward of Brodick, the shore forms the more spacious recess of Lamlash bay, at the bottom of which is a village of the same name, while it is landlocked in front by Holy island, a small isle which formerly contained a monastery. Lamlash bay is of great importance to the navigation of the Clyde and Irish channel, as an unfailing retreat for distressed vessels.

Loch Fyne, a long narrow estuary, having the ridgy promontory of Kintyre on the one side and the district of Cowal on the other, opens up much fine scenery. In sailing up the loch, the first remarkable place is Tarbert, a fishing village situated at the bottom of a beautiful small bay, with a ruined fortalice of the Argyll family perched on a rock by its side. Further up the loch is Inverary castle, the principal seat of the ancient and illustrious house of Argyll. The rugged sylvan scenery around this mansion, with its views of seas, mountains, and distant islands, excites general admiration. Between Inverary and the inn of Tarbert on Loch Lomond, a road opens up a splendid tract of mountain scenery, the most striking being comprehended in the valley of Glencoe. Another road, proceeding in a northerly direction, leads to Loch Awe, p. 473, an inland lake possessing many fine features, and upon which stands the ruined castle of Kilchurn, once the chief stronghold of the Breadalbane family. The loch is overhung by Ben Cruachan, a mountain three thousand three hundred and ninety feet in height, on the skirts of which King Robert Bruce gained a victory over his powerful enemy, the Lord of Lorn.

The northern portion of Argyllshire, where it is bounded by the western ocean and its many inlets, contains much fine scenery. In a sheltered situation on the west coast, stands the neat and cheerful town of Oban, a point of rendezvous for the numerous steamers permeating these seas, and a kind of entrepôt for the rural produce of the wide district around it. In front is the isle of Kerrera, where Alexander II. died in the course of an expedition to the western islands. On the coast a little to the north of Oban, is Dunolly castle, the mansion of the Macdougals of Lorn, and a

little way further north is Dunstaffnage, an ancient seat of the Caledonian kings, occupying a commanding site on the top of a rock overlooking the sea.

Loch Linnhe, opening between Lorn and Morven, and the commencement of the chain of salt and fresh water lakes formed into the Caledonian canal, presents on both sides scenery of a most romantic character—a mixture of bold rocky forelands, on many of which are perched the eyry-like fortresses of the rude chiefs of the olden time, and green smiling hollows, within bays, where the elegant habitations of a modern gentry have been placed. The long island of Lismore, in the mouth of this estuary, was the ancient appanage of the bishops of Argyll, and temporarily the site of a college for catholic priests, after the French seminaries were closed by the revolution; but is now only remarkable for the great quantity of limestone exported from it. Opposite to its upper extremity, Loch Creran, a sub-estuary, branches off into the land of Lorn, opening up much beautiful scenery. On the south shore of Loch Linnhe, to the north of the opening of Loch Creran, is the district of Appin, previous to 1765 the property of a race of Stewarts, descended from a natural son of the last Lord Lorn, and for four centuries conspicuous in Highland history. In this district, the first mansion which occurs to the north of Loch Creran, is Airds, the seat of Sir John Campbell. Next is the ruin of Castle Stalker, an ancient massive building. Appin house, the seat of Mr. Downie of Appin, next occurs; and after that, at the mouth of Loch Leven, Ardshiel (Stewart Esq.). From Ballahulish ferry on Loch Leven, noted for its great quarry of slate, the west Highland road penetrates the savage vale of Glencoe.

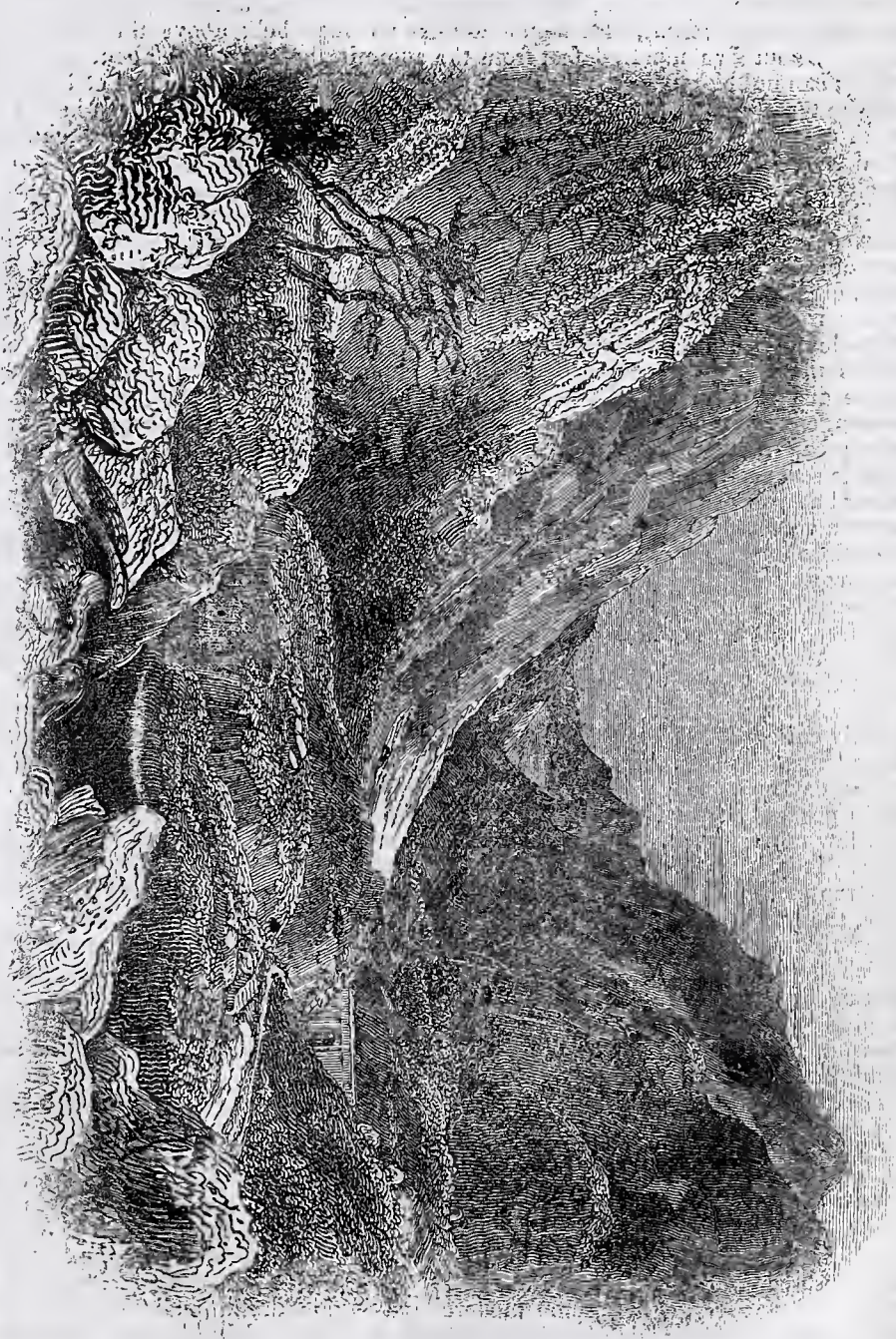
Glencoe opens a little to the north of a solitary inn called the King's house, and extends about ten miles in a northwesterly direction to Ballahulish. It may be described as a narrow strip of rugged territory, along which hurries the wild stream of Cona, celebrated by Ossian, who is said to have been born on its banks. On each side of the narrow banks of this river, a range of stupendous hills shoots perpendicularly up to the height of at least two thousand feet, casting a horrid gloom over the vale, and impressing the lonely traveller with feelings of awe and wonder. The military road sweeps along the right side of the glen. From the sides of the hills an immense number of torrents descend, sometimes sweeping over and spoiling the road, which is always, therefore, in a very precarious state. From the one end of the vale to the other, only one human habitation is to be seen; and as it is not a road of much currency, the traveller may pass through it without meeting a single human being. The goats scrambling among the rocks, and the wild eagle hovering about the tops of the wall-like hills, are usually the only living objects within sight; and, as may be conceived, these rather increase than diminish the wildness and desolation of the scene. The place where the famous massacre of Glencoe happened is at the northwest end of the vale.

INVERNESS-SHIRE.—THE GREAT GLEN.

Between Loch Linnhe on the west coast, and a point on the Moray Firth near Inverness, there is a remarkable natural phenomenon, in the form of a glen or hollow passing in a perfectly straight line for sixty miles, through a mountainous region, and the bottom of which is nowhere more than ninety feet elevated above the level of the sea. It is called by the Highlanders *Glenmore-nan-Albin* (the great glen of Scotland). A chain of lakes extending along this extraordinary hollow suggested the formation of a canal which should admit of navigation between the seas on the two sides of the island, and save the dangerous passage round by the Pentland firth; and this, under the name of the *Caledonian canal*, was formed between 1803 and 1822, under the care of Mr. Telford, at an expense of eight hundred thousand pounds. This line of communication has not proved so useful as was contemplated; but, by admitting of a line of steamers between Inverness and Glasgow, it has been the means of allowing a vast number of persons to enjoy the magnificent scenery through which it passes.

The canal commences at Clachnaharry, in the outskirts of the town of Inverness and, after six miles, enters the first of the chain of lakes, *Loch Ness*, a grand piece of water, twenty-three miles long, situated amid stupendous and sterile mountains. The waters of Loch Ness never freeze, but they are often agitated simultaneously, with the occurrence of earthquakes in distant parts of the world. On an elevated rock projected into the northeast margin of Loch Ness, are situated the remains of Urquhart castle, consisting of a great square keep and several exterior walls of de

Glencee.



fence. It was besieged in 1303 by the officers of Edward I., and with great difficulty taken; it afterward was a royal fortress; and, finally, in 1509, it became the property of Grant of Grant, ancestor of the earl of Seafield, to whom it now belongs. Glen Urquhart, which recedes behind Urquhart castle, is a beautiful highland vale, sometimes likened to Tempe, and containing many gentlemen's seats and a good inn. The conspicuous mountain, *Mealfourvonie* (hill of the cold moor), upward of three thousand feet in height, here begins to raise its huge bulk above the banks of the loch. About five hundred feet from the summit, there is a lake about a mile long, which can not be much less than three thousand feet above the level of Loch Ness. On the top of the hill there is a cairn, the accumulation of which must have been a work of great labor. Mealfourvonie stands so prominently above the neighboring herd of hills, that it is not only singled out by the eye at Inverness, but is the first landmark seen on entering the Moray firth, at the distance of a hundred miles.

The road along the south side of Loch Ness, though it presents numberless fine views, is enlivened by few traces of man's presence. The paucity of houses gives a sort of distinction to the inn named General's hut, nearly eighteen miles from Inverness, originally the residence of General Wade, while superintending the formation of his roads. Little more than a mile further on, a recess or chasm in the hill by the side of the lake contains the celebrated *Fall of Fyers*. At the bottom of the recess there is a smooth little plain, descending upon the lake, ornamented by the house and shrubberies of Fyers, and where the steamers usually disembark such passengers as may desire to behold the waterfall. A path accessible to carriages winds backward and forward up the face of the hill, till the height of the public road is reached; and then there is a pathway leading down the face of the crags, toward a projecting rock, on which visitors usually stand to see the fall. The Fyers is not a very copious stream, except in rainy weather; consequently there are great variations in the aspect of the cascade. In its medium fulness, it pours through a narrow gullet in the rock, in a round unbroken stream, which gradually whitens, as it descends, till it falls into a half-seen profound, usually described as two hundred and forty feet below the point of descent, though this is supposed to be an exaggeration. A dense mist is constantly seen rising from the broken water, like the heavenward aspirations of an afflicted and tortured spirit. The noise is usually very loud. About a quarter of a mile further up the ravine, there is another cascade, usually called the Upper fall—a fearful gulf, down which the water descends by three leaps, and over which a bridge has been thrown, by way of station for a sight of the cataract. All this stupendous ravine is covered by birches, on whose every leaf a pearl of vapory dew is constantly hanging.

A few miles further on, *Glenmorrisson* opens upon the northwest bank of Loch Ness. It is a valley full of romantic scenery, and belongs to a branch of the family of Grant. While the steam-borne traveller necessarily pursues the route by the lake, the traveller by the south road, after passing Fyers, leaves the brink of that piece of water, and advances into *Stratherrick*, a long valley behind the line of hills which overlook Loch Ness. A secluded valley, called Killeen, opening upon this part of the road near Whitebridge, is spoken of as a singularly secluded and romantic piece of scenery. At the distance of thirty-two miles from Inverness, the road descends upon Fort Augustus and the little village of Lillicumming, so called as the burying-place of the Cummings, lords of Badenoch.

Fort Augustus, situated in a pleasant opening among the hills, at the termination of Loch Ness, was erected in 1730, as an addition to the means previously existing for the control of the turbulent children of the mountains. Its purposes being long since accomplished, it has for many years been only occupied by two or three artillerymen. From Fort Augustus, the cut of the canal is resumed, and several locks are ascended; a very few miles brings it to *Loch Oich*, the smallest of the chain of lakes. The scenery is here finer than at any other part of the Great glen. On the northwest bank of the loch is Invergarry, till a recent period the residence of the chief of Glengarry, a handsome modern building, in the immediate neighborhood of an older mansion, which has been in ruins since burnt down by the king's troops in 1746, in consequence of the part taken by the chief in the rebellion.

The next and last loch is *Loch Lochy*, the hills environing which are the most hopelessly wild and stupendous of all in the glen. The summit level of the canal is between Loch Oich and Loch Lochy, being ninety feet above the ordinary high-water mark at Fort William, and ninety-four above that at Inverness—a difference

to be accounted for by the pressure of the Atlantic on the west shores of Scotland. The lonely little inn of Letter Findlay is the only house at first seen on Loch Lochy; but when the west end is nearly reached, the traveller discovers, in a recess on the right side, the house of Auchnacarrie, which was the residence of the gallant and unfortunate Lochiel, before he entered upon the fatal campaign of 1745. The canal, after leaving this loch, descends in a precipitous series of locks, called *Neptune's Staircase*, into Loch Eil, a continuation of Loch Linnhe, the arm of the sea formerly mentioned.

At this point the glen is more spacious than anywhere else. It is, however, the spaciousness of a moor. The river Lochy, which issues from the lake of the same name, pours its voluminous and impetuous flood toward Loch Eil on the left; and beyond it Ben Nevis is seen to rear his enormous head, with the vale of Glen Nevis withdrawing from his mighty side into the solitudes of Lochaber. At the distance of little more than a mile is the town of Fort William, so called from a fortress of the same name built for the repression of Highland turbulence, and now nearly disused.

A cluster of glens to the south of the great Glen, is remarkable for a natural phenomenon, usually called the Parallel Roads of *Glenroy*, such being the name of the vale in which the wonder is most conspicuously marked. It consists of a set of terraces, in most places three in number, extending along both sides of these vales for many miles, the uppermost eighty-two feet above the second, which, again, is two hundred and twelve feet above the first. The common people represent these terraces as roads formed at the command of Fingal, an early hero, for his convenience in hunting; but they are in reality ancient beaches of inland seas, raised into their present position by successive upheavals of the land—phenomena with which modern geologists are familiar.

WESTERN ISLANDS.

The Western Islands are generally bleak and rugged in surface, and occupied by a very poor class of tenantry. In some of them, particularly Skye and Eigg, the scenery attains to a savage grandeur. It is not possible here to present a particular description of any besides the isle of Staffa, so remarkable for its basaltic structure. It is about a mile and a half in circumference, and bears no human habitation, its only useful tenants being a small herd of black cattle. At the point of greatest elevation, toward the southwest, this island is one hundred and forty-four feet high. On the northeast it presents a face of somewhat less height, composed of basaltic columns, and penetrated by several caves of various sizes, into which the sea occasionally breaks with the report of thunder. This face, according to Dr. McCulloch, is formed of three distinct beds of rock, of unequal thickness, inclined toward the east in an angle of about nine degrees: the lowest is a rude trap tufa; the middle one is divided into columns placed vertically to the planes of the lowest bed; and the uppermost is an irregular mixture of small columns and shapeless rock—the whole being partially covered by a fine verdure. The central columnar part having in some places given way, is the occasion of the numerous caves by which the island seems perforated.

At the northeast point of the island, the dipping of the rocks is so low as to afford a safe landing-place at any time of the tide. Proceeding thence, the visiter is conducted along the northeast face, and is introduced to the Clamshell (Scallop) cave, where a curious confusion in the columnar structure is observable. The columns on one side are bent, so as to form a series of ribs not unlike the inside view of the timbers of a ship, while the opposite wall is formed by the ends of columns, bearing a general resemblance to the surface of a honeycomb. This cave is thirty feet in height, and sixteen or eighteen in breadth at the entrance; its length being one hundred and thirty feet, and the breadth contracting to the termination. Next occurs the noted rock Buachaille (the herdsman), a conoidal pile of columns, about thirty feet high, lying on a bed of curved horizontal ones, visible only at low water. There is here an extensive surface, resembling that of the Giant's Causeway, and composed of the broken ends of pillars once continuous to the top of the cliff. The colonnade is now for some distance upright and very grand, till the visiter reaches the Uaimh Binn (Musical cave), usually called Fingal's cave, by far the most impressive and interesting object in the island. It opens from the sea with a breadth of forty-two

feet, a height of sixty-six feet above the water at mean tide, the pillar on one side being thirty-six feet high, and that on the other eighteen. The depth of the recess is two hundred and twenty-seven feet, and the breadth at the inner termination twenty-two. The sides within are columnar throughout; the columns being broken and grouped in many different ways, so as to catch a variety of direct and reflected tints, mixed with secondary shadows and deep invisible recesses. As the sea never ebbs entirely out, the only floor of this beautiful cave is the fine green water, reflecting from its white bottom tints which vary and harmonize the darker tones of the rock, and often throwing on the columns flickering lights, which its undulations catch from the rays of the sun without.

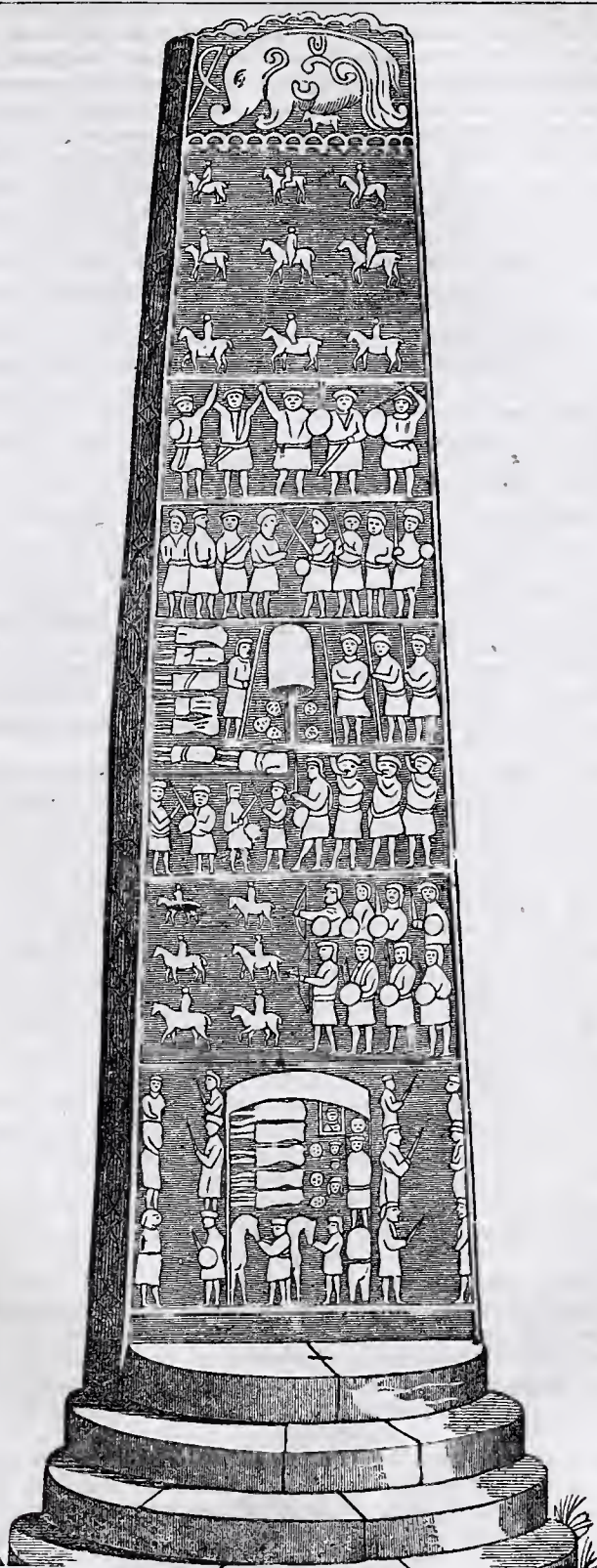
CHAPTER XLIII.

ANTIQUITIES.

THERE are in Scotland, and particularly in the district between the Firth of Tay and Moray Firth, numerous mounds, upright slab stones, and carved stones, which are supposed to have been raised as monuments over slain warriors by the early inhabitants of the country, or by the Danes or other northern nations who occasionally invaded it in remote times. The most remarkable examples of mounds are two at Dunnipace, on the Carron, in Stirlingshire, and one at Fettercairn, in Kincardineshire.

A distinct class of mounds, called *moot* or *moat hills*, are common in the south-western and several other districts. They are generally of a square form, with a flat top. It is believed that they served as places for the administration of justice in rude ages.

Of the carved stones a remarkable example is termed Sueno's pillar. This curious and interesting stone, of which the accompanying engraving gives a correct representation, is situated at a short distance from the town of Forres, in the county of Elgin. It is only a few yards off the road leading from Elgin to Inverness. It is admitted on all hands to be the most singular monument of the kind in Great Britain, perhaps in Europe. Many of our most distinguished antiquarians are indeed of opinion that it has no parallel in any country, Egypt excepted. It is cut out of a large block of granite stone of the hardest kind to be found in Scotland. In height it measures twenty-five feet, and in breadth, near its base, nearly four feet. It is divided into seven departments. It is sculptured on both sides; but that which looks in an eastern direction is by far the most interesting, not only because it is more crowded with figures than the other, but because those figures are executed in such a manner as shows that those by whose instructions it was erected, regarded it as that which would chiefly perpetuate whatever occurrence it was intended to record. The highest department of the obelisk contains representations of nine horses, each having a rider, who is apparently rejoicing at the accomplishment of some important object, most probably of some great victory which has been gained. The figures on this division of the stone are more defaced by time than those on the other divisions, but are still sufficiently distinct to prevent any mistake as to what they are. In the next department appear a number of men all in a warlike attitude. Some of them are brandishing their weapons, while others, as if exulting at some joyful event, are represented as holding their shields on high. Others, again, are in the act of joining hands, either as if mutually congratulating each other, or as a pledge of reciprocal encouragement and assistance. In the centre of the next line of figures appear two warriors, who seemingly are either making preparations for, or are already engaged in single combat, while their respective friends are witnessing the conflict with the liveliest interest. Next we have a group of figures witnessing one of their number beheading, in cold blood, the prisoners who had been taken in war. Close by is a



Sueno's Pillar at Forres.

kind of canopy, which covers the heads of those who have been executed. This canopy is guarded by men each bearing a halberd. A number of dead bodies are lying on one side. Next are trumpeters blowing their trumpets, in testimony, no doubt, of the triumph which has been obtained by the parties, to commemorate whose deeds the monument was raised. In the next division we have a troop of horses put to flight by a band of infantry, whose first line are armed with bows and arrows, while those which follow are accoutred with swords and targets. In the next and last department of the stone, the horses seem to be seized by the conquering party, the riders are beheaded, and the head of the chief or leader is suspended, which is probably meant to denote the same degradation as if it were hung in chains. The other side of the obelisk is chiefly occupied with a large cross. Beneath it are two persons evidently of great consequence. They are accompanied by a retinue of attendants, and embrace each other as if in the act of becoming reconciled together.

Such is a description of this very extraordinary monument. As to its origin, or the particular events it was intended to commemorate, we are unfortunately left in uncertainty. Every historian, every traveller, and indeed most of the antiquarians in Scotland, have all more or less turned their attention to the subject; but no two of them are agreed as to the purposes for which it was erected. Some suppose, from the circumstance of the cross being on the obverse side, that it was planted to commemorate the first establishment of Christianity in Scotland. This, however, is very unlikely: for, had such been its object, it is difficult to see what connexion so many warlike figures could have had with it. Others maintain that it was raised in memory of the battle of Mortlach, which battle, having been gained by the Scots over the Danes, eventually led to the expulsion of the latter from the kingdom. This is also a very improbable hypothesis, the battle in question having been fought nearly twenty miles from the spot where the stone is erected. In fact, there is scarcely any event of national importance that occurred between the commencement of the tenth and the end of the twelfth centuries—for the date of the pillar is generally supposed to lie between those two periods—but has been supposed by some antiquarian or other to have been the cause of its erection.

The hypothesis of the Rev. Charles Cordiner, a distinguished northern antiquarian of the last century, respecting the origin of this monument, appears to us the most probable. His opinion is that it was raised to commemorate the defeat and expulsion from Scotland, by the Scots, of those Scandinavian adventurers mentioned in the "Annals of Torfans," who, joined by a number of chieftains from the opposite coast of Caithness, had, in the ninth century, established themselves at the neighboring promontory of Burghead, and who, during the one hundred and fifty years they kept possession of the place, committed the most serious depredations throughout the surrounding country. In support of his hypothesis Mr. Cordiner reasons in this way:—

"In their sanguine endeavors to extend their sway, and at the same time secure a more speedy retreat to their lines, when carrying off booty, or baffled in any attempt, the aid of cavalry was of essential and almost indispensable importance, and naturally became the distinguishing characteristic of their forces.

"Of consequence, as it was the great object of Caledonian policy and valor to seize their horses, in order to defeat their enterprises; so when, at a fortunate period, they succeeded in totally routing the Scandinavian bands, and compelling them to leave their shores, if they wished to erect a conspicuous memorial of the event, the most striking article would be to exhibit the seizure of the horses, and the inflicting a capital penalty on their riders; and this is done in the most conspicuous department of the column.

"It is moreover evident, from the concurring testimony of history and tradition, that part of the troops and warlike adventurers which had embarked in the grand expedition undertaken by Olaus, prince of Norway, about the year 1000, did reinforce the garrison at Eccialsbacca, in the burgh of Moray, and made some daring advances toward the subduing of the surrounding countries—and that, soon after that period, their repeated defeats induced them wholly to relinquish their settlement in that province.

"No event was therefore more likely to become a subject of national gratitude and honor, than those actions in which the princes of Norway and their military adherents were totally defeated, and which so fully paved the way for returning peace to smile over these harassed and extensive territories. And, in consequence of the

Scandinavian forces finally evacuating their posts, a treaty of amicable alliance might be formed between Malcolm and Canute, or Sueno, king of Norway; and the august figures on the base of the cross have been sculptured to express that important reconciliation, while the figures on the adjacent edge of the obelisk, which are joined hand in hand, and in attitudes of friendly communication, may allude to the new degrees of mutual confidence and security which took place after the feuds were settled that are represented on the front of the column."

The traditions of the country are certainly more in favor of this view of the matter than of any other hypothesis which has been advanced. The very name, indeed, given to the pillar, viz., "Sueno's Stone," which it has retained from time immemorial, shows that the opinion of the peasantry in the district always has been, that that Norwegian monarch must have been, in some way or other, connected with its erection.

There is another very entire and curious specimen at Aberlemno, in Forfarshire. A third, at Meigle, is remarkable as containing a representation of one of the war chariots used by the original inhabitants of the country.

In the north of Scotland, and in Orkney, there are some surviving examples of a very remarkable class of early buildings, to which the common people now give the name of "Picts' houses," as supposing them to have been built by the Picts. They are generally round buildings, of no great height, with round vaulted tops, altogether built of courses of dressed stone without mortar, and containing for the most part one central chamber, and several long, narrow recesses in the thickness of the wall.

Circular mounds, the remains of British and Danish camps, are common on the tops of the Scottish hills, having probably been the places to which the early people retired with their flocks in times of danger. On several hills, particularly in Perthshire and Inverness-shire, there are remains of walls, presenting appearances as if the stony materials had been artificially vitrified. It is not yet clearly ascertained whether these "vitrified forts," as they are called, were works of our Caledonian ancestors, or the effect of accident, though the former is certainly the more likely supposition.

The weapons used by the aboriginal people are often found, consisting of stone-axes, arrow-heads of flint, &c. Necklaces, bracelets, and other ornaments used by them, barbarous in style, but generally of gold, are also often found. In various districts, druidical circles still exist in a tolerably entire state; but none on so large or regular a scale as those of Stonehenge and Abury.

There are remains of roads and camps formed by the Romans in their hesitating and imperfect attempts to subdue North Britain; and of the wall built under the Emperor Antoninus, between the Firths of Forth and Clyde, with forts at regular intervals, it is still possible to discern a few traces.

The next class of antique objects are the remains of the Gothic fanes, reared on account of religion during the period when the Romish church was triumphant. These are everywhere very numerous, but in few cases tolerably entire. Excepting two cathedrals, those of Glasgow and of Kirkwall (in Orkney), all of that class of structures are in ruins. The abbeyes, priories, and other conventual and collegiate establishments, are in every instance gone to decay. Melrose abbey, the cathedral of Elgin, and the collegiate church of Roslin, are the most beautiful of these ruinous buildings.

Melrose abbey stands in one of the vales of the Tweed, in the county of Roxburgh, having that river flowing on the north of it, and the Eildon hills looking down upon it from the south. The first abbey of Melrose stood about two miles east from the present, on the same bank of the Tweed, in a peninsula formed by a turn of the river, and terminating in a rocky precipice of some elevation. Hence the name Mail-ross, which in Celtic signifies a naked promontory, or tongue of land. The spot is still occupied by a hamlet called old Melrose, to distinguish it from the larger village which surrounds the present abbey. This first house was a foundation of great antiquity, having been erected soon after the commencement of the seventh century.

It was tenanted by an association of the Culdees, the primitive Christian clergy of Scotland and is stated by Bede to have become an establishment of great celebrity so early as the year 664. It was here that the famous St. Cuthbert commenced his monastic life, and acquired the reputation which in his old age occasioned his transference to the greater monastery of Lindisfarne. The first monastery of Melrose, how-

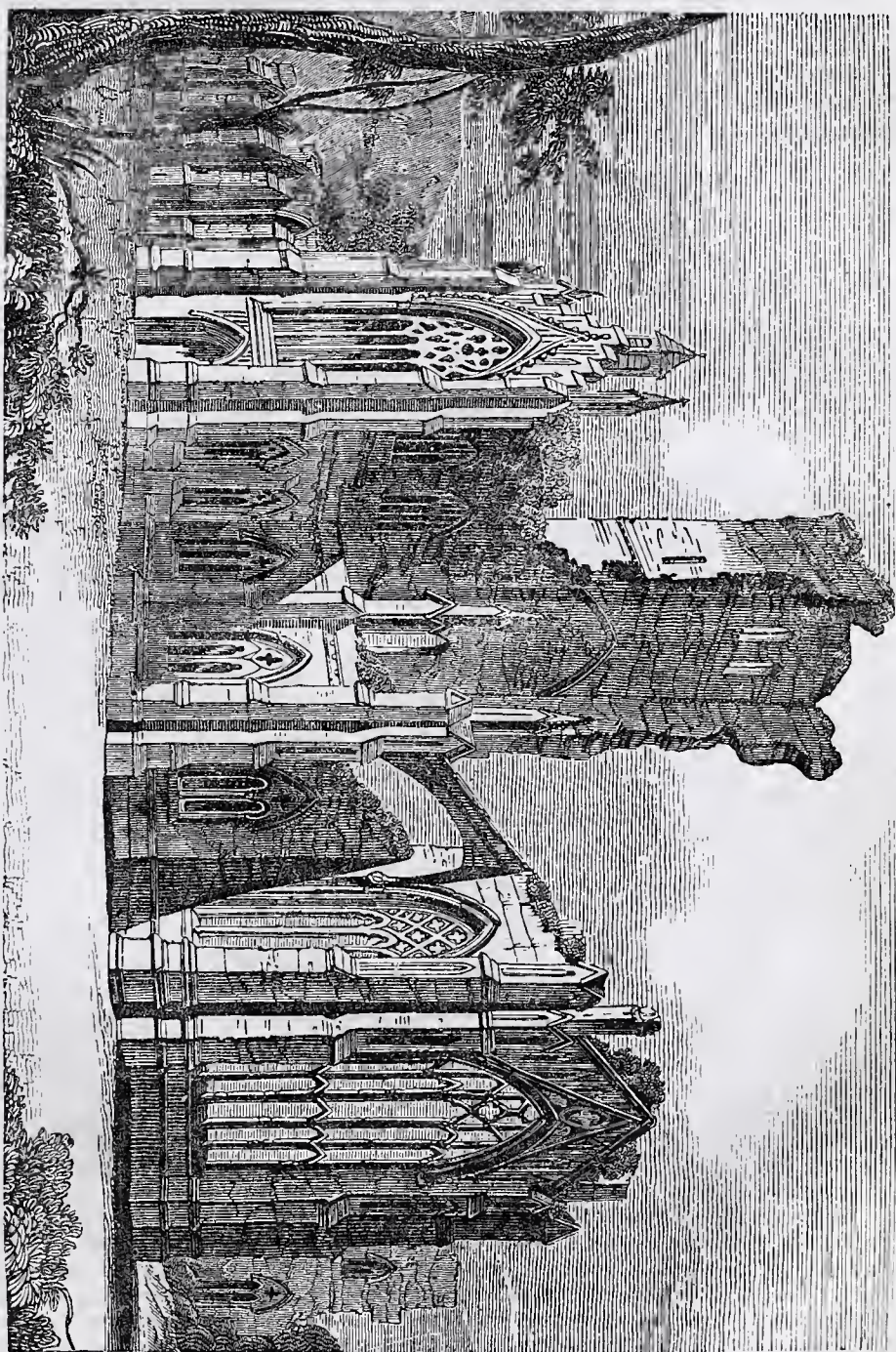
ever, like all the religious buildings of those times, was probably a very humble edifice, and is said indeed to have been built only of wood. Parts of the foundation of a wall by which it had been surrounded are still to be seen; but no trace is to be discovered of the house itself.

The present abbey was founded in 1136, by King David I., commonly called St. David—"a sore saint for the crown," as he was characterized by his descendant James VI., in allusion to the curtailment of the royal patrimony occasioned by his pious liberality. The new monastery was peopled as soon as finished by an importation of Cisterians from the hive of Rievaulx, in Yorkshire, the first of that order of monks which had been seen in Scotland, whence Melrose retained ever after the dignity of the mother Cisterian church of that country. It was dedicated to the virgin in 1146.

The history of this abbey during the four centuries it existed, presents very few incidents to distinguish it from that of similar establishments. There is a valuable document, known as the "*Chronicle of Melrose*," being a chronological account of Scottish affairs from 735 to 1270, compiled by the monks, which Thomas Gale has published in the first volume of his "*Rerum Anglicarum Scriptores*." From the successive donations of its royal and other benefactors, it rapidly rose to great wealth, and that notwithstanding the spoliation which it repeatedly sustained from incursions of the English, when the two countries were at war. In 1561, immediately before the dissolution, its revenues amounted to £1,758 in money, besides large quantities of wheat, beer, meal, oats, poultry, butter, salt, &c. The number of monks in later times seems to have varied from eighty to about one hundred.

After the reformation the monastery and its estates were granted by Queen Mary to the infamous James Hepburn, Earl of Bothwell, whom she afterward married. On his forfeiture they were bestowed on James Douglass, a brother of the earl of Morton; and they subsequently passed through various possessors, till they were purchased, in the course of the last century, by the family of Buccleugh, to whom they now belong. Douglass pulled down a part of the abbey, and with the materials erected a mansion in the vicinity, which is still standing. It is probable, however, that the building suffered considerably before this in the tumults by which the reformation in Scotland was attended. It is said to have received much additional injury from a popular attack upon it, as a monument of popery and episcopacy, in 1649. On this occasion, many of the statues, or images, as they would be called, with which it was adorned, were broken to pieces; and indeed, the tradition is, that the work of demolition was put an end to by a fright which the mob received from an accident which befell one of them, while levelling a blow at a figure of the Virgin. It appears at any rate that many of the statues which are now gone were in existence long after this time, as may be seen by an engraving of the abbey given in the first edition of "*Slezer's Theatrum Scotiæ*," published in 1693.

The church had been in the form of a cross, and the ruins which still remain consist principally of the southern transept, a portion of the square tower which rose over the centre of the building, and the portion of the body of the church, including the choir, and part of the nave, to the east of the tower. The roof has nearly all fallen in. Still, even in this state of decay and desolation, the pile remains a monument of architectural taste and skill of almost unrivalled beauty. "*Mailross*," writes the eminent antiquary Francis Drake, in a letter to Roger Gale, dated 14th July, 1742, "I shall take upon me to say, has been the most exquisite structure of its kind in either kingdom." Mr. Hutchinson, in his "*View of Northumberland*" (2 vols. 4to. 1778), from whose account of Melrose the notices that have since appeared have been chiefly borrowed, expresses himself in terms of equally fervent admiration. Speaking of the ornamental work on the door which had led from the northern transept to the cloister, he says: "The fillet of foliage and flowers is of the highest finishing that can be conceived to be executed in freestone, the same being pierced, the flowers and leaves separated from the stone behind, and suspended in a twisted garland. In the mouldings, pinnacle work, and foliage, of the seats which remain of the cloister, I am bold to say there is as great excellence to be found, as in any stone work in Europe, for lightness, ease, and disposition. Nature is studied through the whole, and the flowers and plants are represented as accurately as under the pencil. In this fabric there are the finest lessons, and the greatest variety of Gothic ornaments that the island affords, take all the religious structures together."



Southeast View of Melrose Abbey.

The chisel of the sculptor who thus ornamented Melrose, has been singularly fortunate in the material upon which it was exercised. "The stone," says Scott, "though it has resisted the weather for so many ages, retains perfect sharpness, so that even the most minute ornaments seem as entire as when newly wrought. In some of the cloisters there are representations of flowers, vegetables, &c., carved in stone, with accuracy and precision so delicate, that we almost distrust our senses, when we consider the difficulty of subjecting so hard a substance to such intricate and exquisite modulation." In the poem to which this note is appended, "the Lay of the last Minstrel," the following lines also occur, descriptive of the beauty of these representations and their nice fidelity to nature:—

"Spreading herbs and flowerets bright,
Glistened with the dew of night;
Nor herb nor floweret glistened there,
But was carved in the cloister arches as fair.

* * * * *

By a steel-clenched postern door
They entered now the chancel tall,
The darkened roof rose high aloof
On pillars, lofty, and light, and small;
The key-stone that locked each ribbed aisle,
Was a fleur-de-lys, or a quatre-feuille;
The corbells were carved grotesque and grim;
And the pillars with clustered shafts so trim,
With base and with capital flourished around,
Seemed bundles of lances which garlands had bound."

The most superb parts of the ruin are the entry to the southern transept with the window over it, and the great eastern window, both of which are represented in our engraving. Scott thus describes the latter as seen from the interior, by his hero, William of Deloraine, and his guide, "the Monk of St. Mary's aisle":—

"The moon on the east oriel shone,
Through slender shafts of shapely stone,
By foliated tracery combined;
Thou wouldst have thought some fairy's hand,
'Twixt poplars straight the osier wand,
In many a freakish knot, had twined;
Then framed a spell, when the work was done,
And changed the willow-wreaths to stone.
The silver light, so pale and faint,
Showed many a prophet, and many a saint,
Whose image on the glass was dyed;
Full in the midst his cross of red
Triumphant Michael brandished
And trampled the Apostate's pride.
The moonbeam kissed the holy pane,
And threw on the pavement a bloody stain."

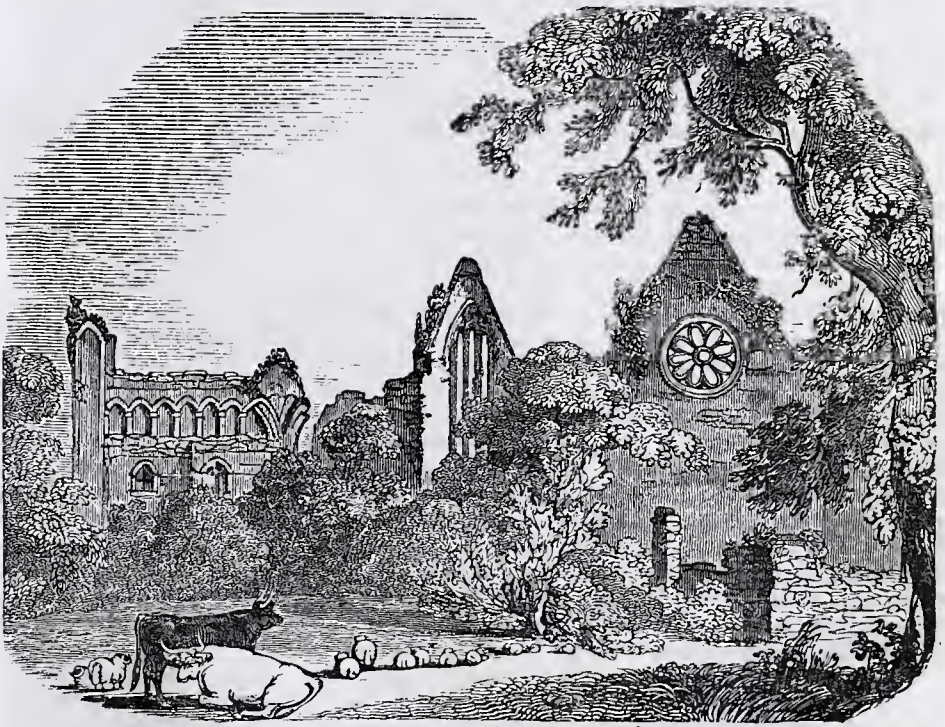
According to Hutchinson, the entire length of the abbey is two hundred and fifty-eight feet, and that of the transept one hundred and thirty-seven feet. What remains of the tower is seventy-five feet in height, but it appears to have been anciently surmounted by a spire. The character of the architecture proves that very little of the building erected by David I. now remains. The monastery is known to have undergone an extensive restoration during the reign of Robert Bruce in the early part of the fourteenth century; and what we now see is probably the work of that age.

There is no other remnant of antiquity in Scotland which has of late years been so much visited by strangers as Melrose. Since the publication of "the Lay of the last Minstrel," especially, the fame of the place has been carried wherever the English language is known. This general admiration has occasioned a good deal to be done for the preservation of the ruin. Formerly a part of the nave was used as the parish church, and the erections rendered necessary by this appropriation sadly injured the effect of the ancient architecture. A new parish church has lately been built, and the abbey is left to the solitude and silence best becoming its dismantled state, and that of the fallen faith of which it is the monument. The beautiful ruin may now be contemplated without the pensive remembrances which it recalls being

broken in upon by any foreign and incongruous associations, as the well-known lines of Scott have described it:—

“ If thou wouldst view fair Melrose aright,
Go visit it by the pale moonlight;
For the gay beams of lightsome day
Gild, but to flout, the ruins gray.
When the broken arches are black in night,
And each shafted oriel glimmers white;
When the cold light's uncertain shower
Streams on the ruined central tower;
When buttress and buttress, alternately,
Seem framed of ebon and ivory;
When silver edges the imagery,
And the scrolls that teach thee to live and die;
When distant Tweed is heard to rave,
And the owlet to hoot o'er the dead man's grave;
Then go—but go alone the while—
Then view St. David's ruined pile;
And, home returning, soothly swear,
Was never scene so sad and fair!”

Dryburgh abbey, a picturesque and lovely ruin, where rest the remains of Sir Walter Scott, is situated on Tweed side, about halfway between Smailholm and Abbotsford: Smailholm, which was the spot where Scott passed his infancy, and Abbotsford which his glories have immortalized.



Dryburgh Abbey.

Dryburgh abbey presents but few remains of its former grandeur, but still the beholder is much gratified by the vastness of the ruin, over which the green ivy throws a verdant robe, and when seen by moonlight, the pale beams of that wandering planet, give a melancholy and soothing softness to the scene.

About three miles south from Staffa, and within a mile of the southern extremity of Mull, lies the famous Iona—"once," in the language of Dr. Johnson, "the luminary of the Caledonian regions, whence savage clans and roving barbarians derived the benefits of knowledge and the blessings of religion." The name Iona is merely the Celtic term *I-thona* (the *th* not pronounced), signifying the Isle of Waves. Iona is now commonly called *I* (pronounced *ee*), that is, the isle—a name which seems to

have been bestowed upon it by way of pre-eminence in very remote times. It is so designated by Bede, who wrote in the beginning of the eighth century. It is sometimes also more formally or emphatically distinguished as I-colm-kill, that is, the isle of Columba's cell.

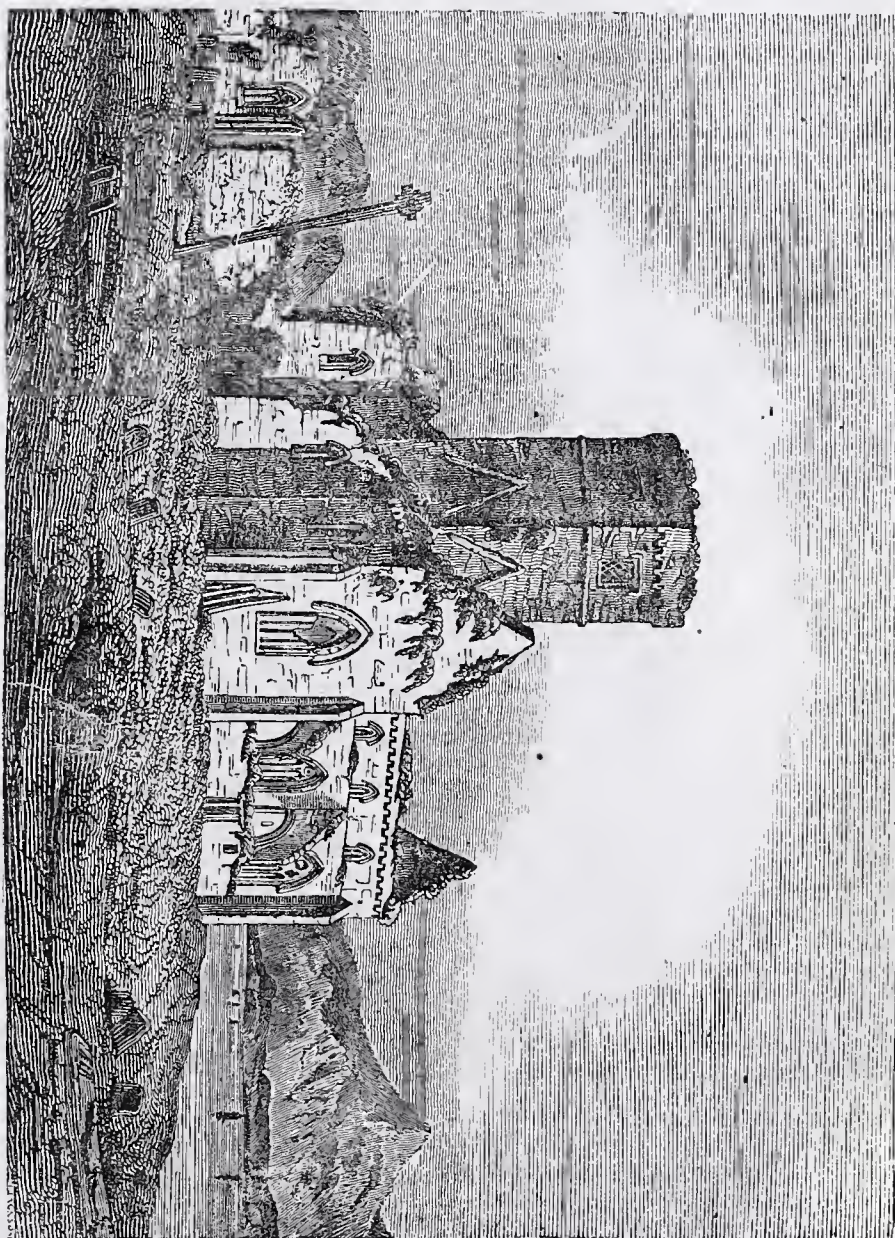
Iona is larger than Staffa, but still of very limited dimensions, being only about three miles in length, from southwest to northeast, and scarcely a mile across at its greatest breadth. On the west side the coast is for the most part rocky; but on the east it is more level. The two principal plains are at the northern extremity of the island, one called the Bay of Martyrs, on the west side; the other, that on which the village is built, looking to the east. The population consisting now of about ninety families, or four hundred and fifty individuals, is all collected in this last-mentioned corner. Iona has long enjoyed the reputation of extraordinary fertility; and all the old accounts celebrate its eminence in this respect. But the praises it has received are probably to be interpreted with a reference to its peculiar locality, and as meaning only that its soil was more productive than that of the desolate and savage regions by which it is surrounded.

There is reason to believe that this little isle was a sacred spot even long before it was shone upon by the light of Christianity. Here the Druids are supposed to have celebrated their mysterious and bloody rites; it is said to have then borne the name of Inish Druinish, the island of the Druids; and a green eminence near the east coast is still distinguished by the epithet of their burying-place. It was probably the fame of its ancient sanctity which induced St. Columba to fix upon it as a residence for himself and his companions, when he came over from Ireland to convert the northern Scots, according to Bede, in the year 565. It is certain at least that here he established himself, having, it is said, obtained a grant of the island from the king who then reigned in Scotland.

St. Columba must have been a man of no ordinary endowments, both natural and acquired, and far in advance of the dark and rude age in which he lived. Wherever he may have been educated, he appears to have been possessed of all the knowledge of his time; and may be considered to have introduced the light of letters as well as that of religion into the country of his adoption. Columba's works, which are in Latin, were published at Louvain, in 1667, under the superintendence of Patrick Fleming, a countryman of his own. The saint is said to have died in 597.

Whatever may have been the exact nature of the institution established by St. Columba in Iona, it could hardly have been governed on any principle of monastic discipline, of which no trace is to be found in the history of the church till long after his time. It rather appears to have been a seminary for the education of the priesthood, or what we should now call a theological college. In Bede's time the discipline established by St. Columba still survived at Iona. Here and elsewhere the priests were denominated, not monks, but culdees, from a Celtic term still in use, which signifies merely a person given to retirement and solitary meditation. The introduction of the papal rule eventually substituted everywhere for the culdees some order of regular monks. At Iona the successors of Columba, after some centuries of undisturbed tranquillity, which their noted learning and sanctity procured for them, notwithstanding the continual contests of the barbarous and ferocious tribes by which they were surrounded, were at last, in the year 807, driven from their ancient shelter by an incursion of the Danes, those unscrupulous pirates, whom even the cross rarely deterred when a booty worth the seizing tempted them on. After this the place remained for many years untenanted—till it was again taken possession of by a detachment of monks of the order of St. Benedict, from the famous abbey of Cluny, who occupied it till the reformation. After the isle of Man ceased to be a part of the Scottish dominions, the church of Iona was the cathedral of the bishop of the Isles; and that dignity it retained till the establishment of presbyterianism. This and the other sacred buildings, however, which once existed on the island, were, according to the common account, reduced very nearly to the ruined state in which they now remain, at the era of the reformation.

The principal monuments of the past which are yet to be seen at Iona are the ruins of the cathedral church of St. Mary, of a nunnery, of five chapels, and of a building called the Bishop's house. Of these buildings, the most ancient is, beyond all doubt, much more recent than the time of Columba. His erection was probably of wattles, the material then generally used for building in this country. Of the existing remains, Dr. M'Culloch, who published a description of the Western isles in



Exterior View of the Cathedral of St. Mary, at Iona.

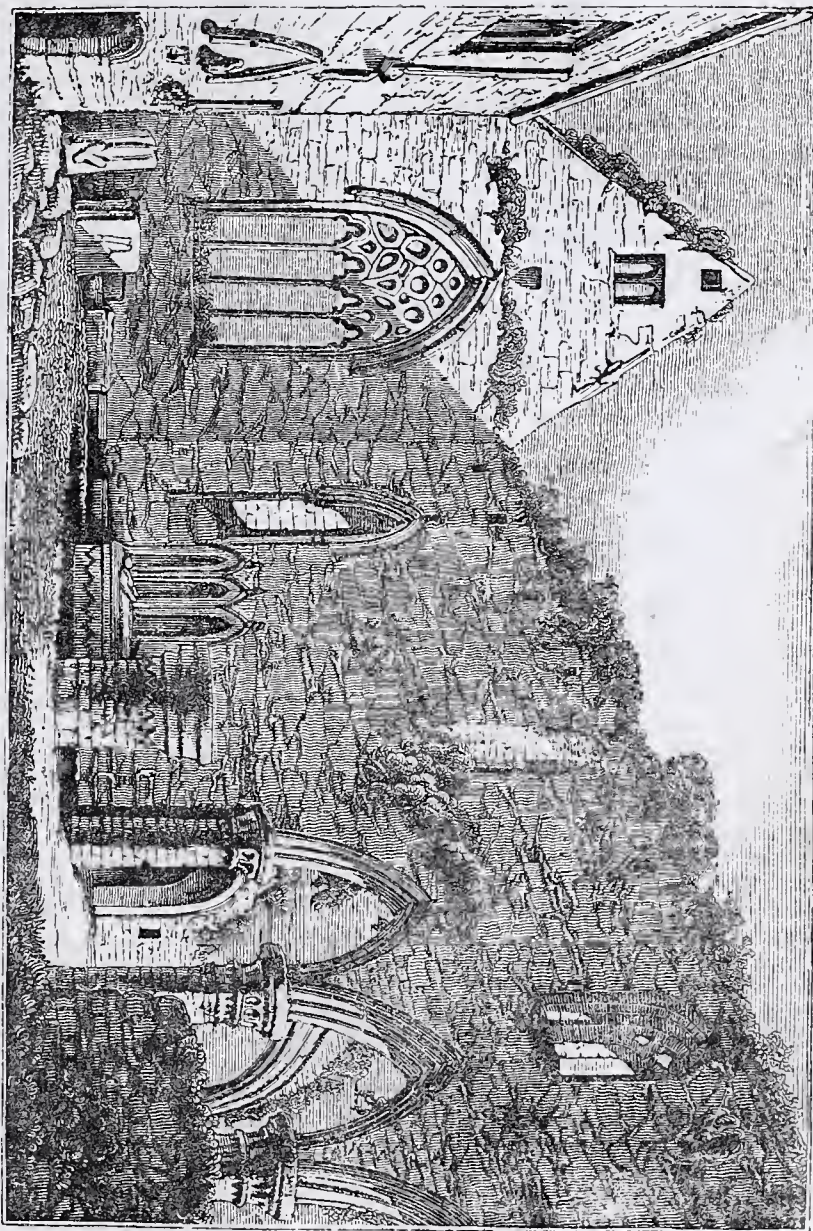
1819, is of opinion that that called St. Oran's chapel is the most ancient; and it may, perhaps be referred to the Saxon age. Next to this edifice, in point of antiquity, may be reckoned the nunnery. The arches here are also round; and the foundation of the building may probably be referred to a period beyond the twelfth century. The most extensive ruin is that of the church of which our engraving gives a representation. It is in the form of a cross, surmounted at the intersection of the nave and the transept by a square tower of about seventy feet in height. The length of the transept is seventy feet, and that of the body of the church, from east to west, one hundred and twenty feet. Of this building, the part to the eastward of the tower is apparently the most ancient; and it may probably be assigned to the thirteenth century. The arches are pointed, and the shafts of the pillars are cylindrical and plain, as they are usually found to be in buildings of the Norman age. The great window in the eastern gable of this church has been much admired. For a more minute description of the different buildings, the reader may consult Dr. Johnson's *Journey to the Hebrides*. When Dr. Johnson was here in 1773, the chapel of the nunnery was used as a cowhouse, and was covered to the depth of several feet with dung. The doctor, accompanied by his friend Boswell, and their host, Mr. Maclean, during the night they spent in Iona, lay together in a barn, on straw, with their portmanteaus for their pillows.

The monuments of the dead with which this sacred soil was formerly crowded, and many vestiges of which still remain, are perhaps more interesting than the dilapidated walls which rise in the midst of them. Forty-eight kings of Scotland, four of Ireland, and eight of Norway, are said to have been buried in Iona, in three separate enclosures, each bearing a Latin inscription, intimating to which class of the illustrious dead it was appropriated. These inscriptions seem to have been legible in Buchanan's days; but they are now wholly obliterated, and the royal cemetery indeed is reduced to a few slight ridges formed by some broken arches built under the ground. It is known by the name of the Ridge of Kings. Of the other tombs most of the inscriptions are in Saxon characters; but Dr. McCulloch states that there are also a few in which the Celtic language and alphabet are used, though among these he could discover none with dates. Among the ornamental sculptures the most interesting which he observed were some ancient ships.

Roslin castle is in the parish of Lasswade, a few miles south from Edinburgh; and it stands on the north bank of the river called the North Esk, on a rock which overhangs the stream, and at a point where it makes a sharp turn and pursues its course for a moment, with something of the dash and hurry of a cataract. Hence, according to one etymology, the name Roskely, from the Gaelic *Ross*, a promontory or jutting rock, and *Lyn*, a waterfall, the rock of the waterfall. Others, however, derive it from another compound Roskely, signifying the rock in the glen; and this is also strikingly descriptive of the position of the castle, which stands in the hollow of a valley, and is surrounded on all sides by hills. The situation is in the highest degree romantic and beautiful, the wood in the bosom of which the castle stands extending to the water's edge, while masses of the richest foliage cover in almost every direction the brows and summits of the surrounding heights. The castle itself is now a mere ruin, consisting of little more than a few fragments of masonry, which project their gray and ragged tops from the midst of the trees, the time-shattered work of man making a fine though melancholy contrast with the fresh and ever-springing green of nature. There wave the old, but yet strong and leafy boughs; beside them runs the river along its rocky bed:—

"Twill murmur on a thousand years,
And flow as now it flows:"

but the home of ancient state is stripped bare of all that once adorned it, nor roof nor floor remains of the spacious halls and gilded chambers that were wont to lodge their troops of retainers and guests, and to ring with their festive revelry. And they who tenanted them are still more utterly passed away; man's works are perishable, but he himself is of still briefer date. The old lords of Roslin are supposed to have had a baronial residence on this spot from the eleventh century, when they first came into possession of the property; but the original castle was burnt to the ground in 1554 by the English forces, which in that year attacked the Scottish capital and ravaged the surrounding country. The building, of which the ruins now remain, seems to have been nearly all erected since that disaster. In the old castle, William



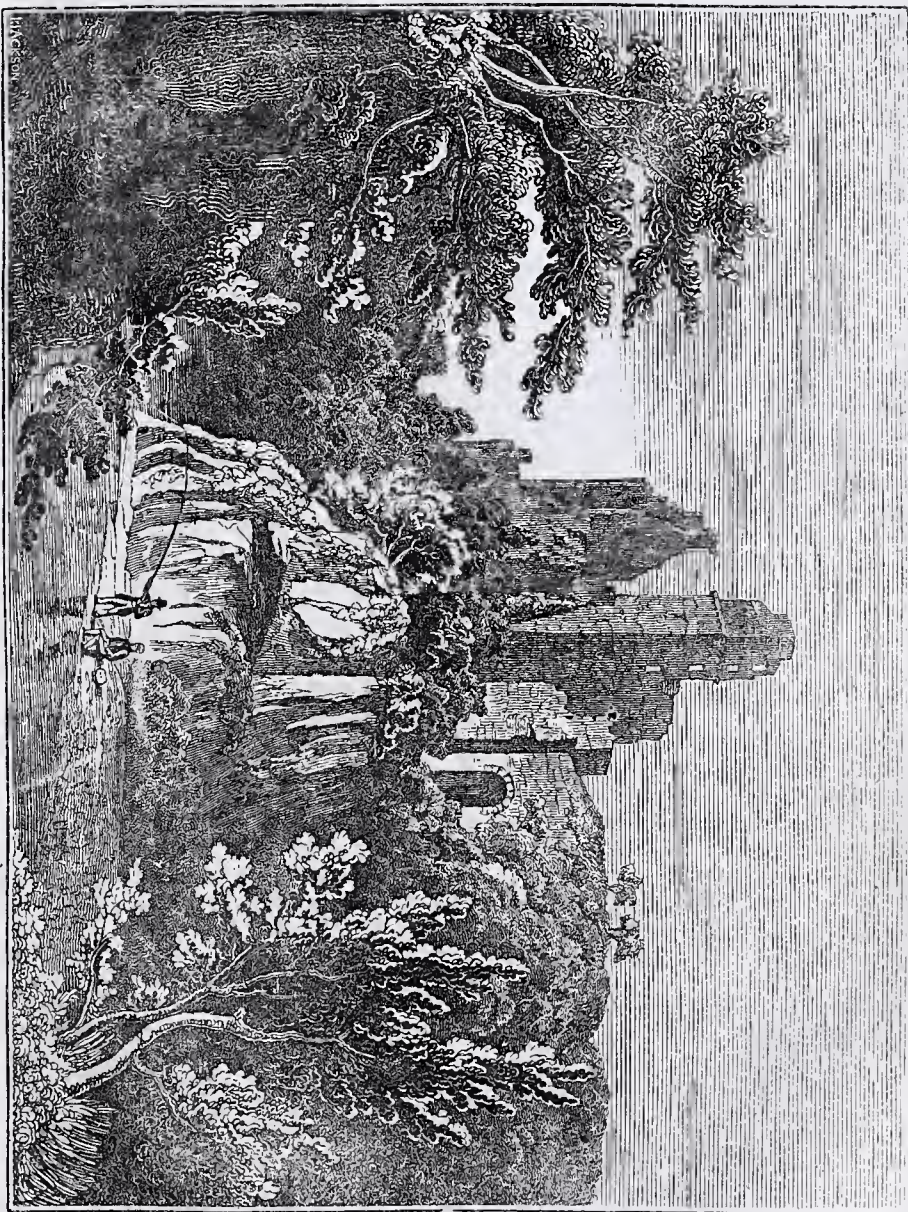
Interior of the Cathedral Church of Iona.

St. Clair, the baron of Roslin, who among other titles bore those of earl of Caithness and prince of the Orkneys, is recorded to have lived in a style rivalling the magnificence of royal state. The following is the description of his housekeeping given by an old writer: "He kept a great court, and was royally served at his own table in vessels of gold and silver; Lord Dirleton being his master-household, Lord Borthwick his cup-bearer, and Lord Hereing his carver; in whose absence they had deputies to attend; viz., Stewart, Laird of Drumlanrig; Tweddle, Laird of Drumelrine, and Sandilands, Laird of Calder. He had his halls, and other apartments, richly adorned with embroidered hangings. He flourished in the reigns of James I., and II. His princess, Elizabeth Douglas, was served by seventy-five gentlewomen, whereof fifty-three were daughters of noblemen, all clothed in velvet and silks, with their chains of gold, and other ornaments; and was attended by two hundred riding gentlemen in all her journeys; and, if it happened to be dark when she went to Edinburgh, where her lodgings were at the foot of the Black Friars' Wynd, eighty lighted torches were carried before her." It was this splendid feudal chief (who flourished in the middle of the fifteenth century) that erected the exquisitely beautiful chapel which stands in the neighborhood of Roslin castle.

Tantallon, or, as it is often called, Tamtallon castle, stands on the coast of the German ocean, about two miles and a half east from the town of North Berwick, in the county of Haddington, otherwise called East Lothian, Scotland. Of the early history of this extensive ruin, but little is known. Grose, who has given two views of it in his "Antiquities of Scotland," was not able to discover when or by whom it was built, after searching all the authorities within his reach; and the late Mr. George Chalmers, the learned author of the "Caledonia," was equally unsuccessful. There is no doubt, however, that the fortress was one of the most ancient, as it was always considered one of the strongest, in Scotland.

It occupies the summit of an eminence, terminating in a precipitous rock toward the sea, into which it projects so far that, on three of its sides, it is wholly surrounded by the water. On the fourth side, which looks toward the land, it has been guarded by strong outworks, and two ditches, the inner one of which has been of great depth. Its shape has been somewhat irregular, but semi-hexagonal in its general outline. What now remains is principally a long stretch of ragged wall, surmounted by the fragment of a tower, whose weather-beaten front, frowning over the waves, presents an aspect peculiarly desolate and melancholy.

From the earliest date to which its history can be traced, Tantallon castle was a stronghold of the family of Douglas; and it makes a principal figure in the history of the contests of that turbulent and aspiring house with their sovereign, from the middle of the fifteenth to the middle of the sixteenth century. In 1455, the barony of North Berwick, along with Tantallon castle, was forfeited by the earl of Douglas to the crown; but about twenty-five years afterward these possessions were restored by James III. to the famous Archibald *Bell-the-Cat*, the sixth earl of Angus, who, in return, afterward headed the rebellion which cost the unfortunate monarch his throne and his life. Soon after the battle of Flodden, where James IV. was killed, the earl married his widow, and in this way got into his possession her son, James V., whom he retained in close confinement till the year 1527, when the young king at last contrived to elude his jailer. On this event Douglas took refuge in his castle of Tantallon, and collected there a band of the truest of his retainers. From this retreat James immediately prepared to dislodge him; and an old Scottish historian, Lindsey of Pittscottie, has given us a detailed history of the attempt, which curiously illustrates the feeble resources of the Scottish monarchy in those days, when the crown as yet held its precarious supremacy only by an incessant struggle with the barons or great landed proprietors of the kingdom. James, Lindsey tells us, commenced operations by making proclamation to all the neighboring counties, Fife, Angus, Strathern, Stirling, Lothian, the Merse, and Tiviotdale, to compare at Edinburgh on the tenth of December, every man bringing with him forty days' victuals, to pass along with the king in person to the siege of the castle. Having collected his forces, he next sent to the castle of Dunbar to borrow from the duke of Albany "two great cannons, thravn mouthed Mow and her marrow, with two great bot-cards, and two moyans, two double falcons, and four quarter falcons, with their powder and bullets, and gunners for to use them." He at the same time "caused three lords to pass in pledge for the said artillery till it were delivered again." But guns, ammunition, and engineers, were all to no purpose; they carried on the siege



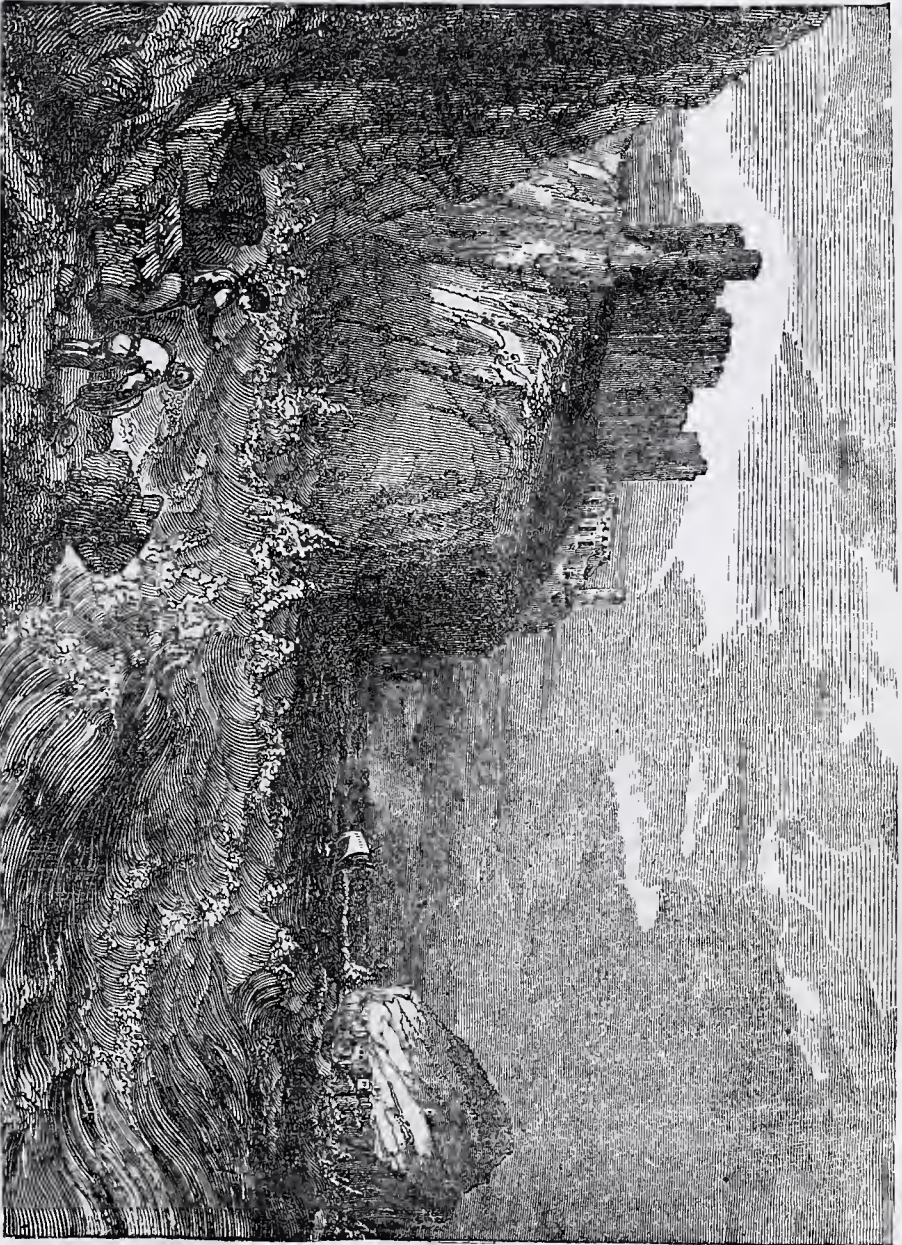
Roslin Castle.

for twenty days, "but," continues the historian, "they came no speed; whether the castle was so strong, or the gunners corrupted by the earl of Angus's moyen, I can not tell." The king, then, having lost many men and horses, resolved to retire to Edinburgh; but still anxious to obtain possession of the fortress, he opened a negotiation with the captain of the garrison, Simeon Pannango; and at length, by very liberal promises of favor both to himself and his men, induced him to surrender it. "Shortly after," concludes Lindsey, "the king gart garnish it with men of war and artillery, and put in a new captain, to wit, Oliver Sinclair; and caused masons to come and ranforce the walls, which were left waste before as trances and thorow-passages, and made all massy work, to the effect that it should be more able in time coming to any enemies that would come to pursue it." It is a tradition among the soldiers, Grose tells us, that what is called the Scotch March was composed for the troops going to this siege, and that the tune was intended to express the words *Ding down Tantallon*. Scott, in the introduction to his "Minstrelsy of the Border," has noticed the phrase, "To ding down Tantallon, and make a bridge to the Bass," as an old adage expressive of impossibility. The lofty rock called the Bass, lying two miles out at sea, is a conspicuous object from Tantallon castle and the neighboring coast.

The castle was subjected, in the course of the seventeenth century, to two other attacks, which it did not stand so well as it had done that directed against it by James V. In 1639, being then in the possession of the marquis of Douglas, it was taken by the Covenanters, and dismantled. The injuries it sustained upon this occasion, however, appear to have been soon after repaired, for in the close of the year 1650, when it was held by the marquis as one of the supporters of the royal cause, it again stood out, for a short time, an assault made upon it by General Monk, who, after the taking of the castle of Edinburgh by Cromwell, was despatched to reduce that of Tantallon, with three regiments of horse and foot. After playing against it with mortars for forty-eight hours, Monk found that he had made little or no impression on it. He is stated to have then applied his battering-guns, and by this means he soon forced the garrison to surrender at discretion. After this the castle was reduced to ruins; and in that state it has remained ever since. Some time after the Restoration it was sold, along with the Bass, by the marquis of Douglas, to Sir Hugh Dalrymple; in the possession of whose representative both still continue.

Stirling, anciently Striveling, was in former times one of the most important towns, in a military point of view, in the Scottish realm. From its position on the Forth it was the key to the Highlands—"the bulwark of the north"—as Scott has called it in his "Lady of the Lake." It stands on the south bank of that river, and used to command the only bridge by which it was crossed. The situation of the place in its general features very much resembles that of Edinburgh. Both towns are seated on the south bank of the Forth, and each occupies an eminence, rising by a gradual ascent from the east, and terminating at the opposite extremity in a precipitous rock, the summit of which is crowned by the fort or castle. The natural battlement, however, on which the castle of Stirling stands, is the higher of the two, being about 350 feet above the level of the sea, while the other is not quite three hundred.

Stirling has been called the Windsor of Scotland; and it has some pretensions to that appellation. The view from the castle is of vast extent, and comprehends the richest variety both of the beautiful and the grand in natural scenery. Toward the west the prospect is bounded by the solitary Ben Lomond, rising in the sky, at the distance of about thirty miles, to the height of above three thousand feet. The intervening space is a level valley, through which the Forth is seen stealing its way with a thousand meanderings. Round the northern horizon sweeps the almost continuous chain of the Grampians. To the south lie the green hills of Campsie; turning round from which toward the east the eye rests on a plain of rich and cultivated beauty, with the sister towers of the capital cresting the distance, and between, the broad and fertile plains of Carron on the one hand, and on the other "the mazy Forth unravelled" in a succession of beautiful windings, till it spreads out from a slender stream into a great arm of the sea. Some idea of the singular manner in which the river lingers over this part of its course, may be formed from the fact that it travels over about twenty-four miles in making its way through a space not more than six miles in length. The innumerable green peninsulas, of



View of Tantalum Castle, with the Bass Rock in the distance.

every variety of shape and dimension, which it forms in its sportive progress, present a picture which certainly has not often been surpassed in bright and animated beauty.

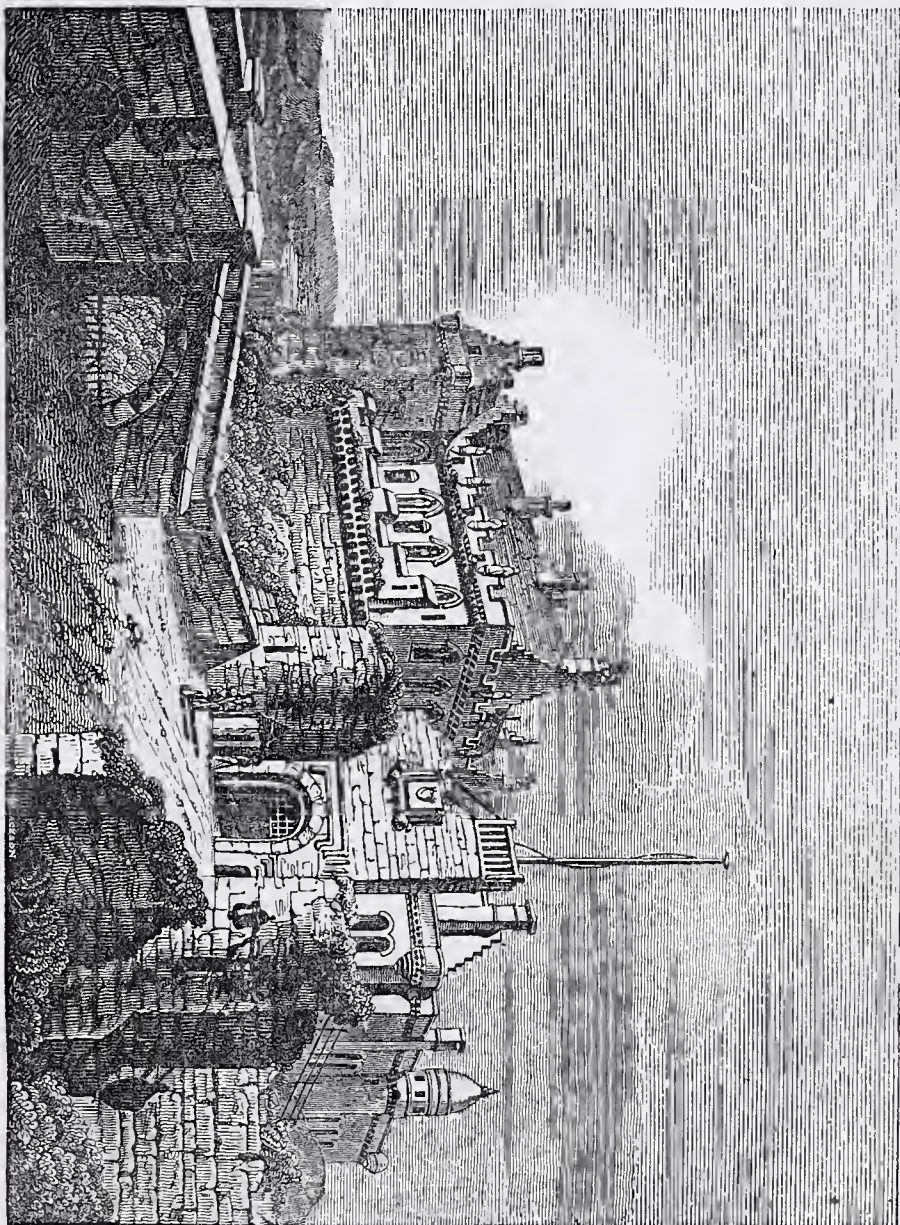
Grey Stirling, with her towers and towns, is unquestionably a place of very high antiquity. The oldest existing charter of the burgh is dated in 1120; but it appears to be a confirmation of former grants, and there can be no doubt that the fort at least was of importance a considerable time before this. The first mention which historians have made of it is in the ninth century, about the middle of which it is recorded to have been taken and thrown down by Kenneth II. the king of the Highlands of Scotland, when he overcame the Picts whose principal fortress it was, and that which guarded the most exposed extremity of their territory. The whole of the south of Scotland as far as Stirling, however, appears soon after this to have fallen into the possession of the two chiefs, Osbriht, or Osbert, and Ella, who, under the weak sway of the English king, Ethelred I., had seized upon the sovereignty of Northumberland; and they rebuilt the castle as a protection to their new conquests.* In the next century we find it again in the hands of the Scots. It was afterward repeatedly attacked, and taken both by the English, and by the several factions whose contentions continued to distract Scotland with little intermission during nearly all the time it remained an independent kingdom. But even to enumerate all the sieges it sustained would lead us far beyond our present limits. The last time it was attacked was by the Highlanders in the rebellion of 1745, when it was successfully defended by the governor, old General Blakeney throughout a siege of several weeks.

Stirling appears to have become a royal residence about the middle of the twelfth century; but probably none of the present buildings of the castle are older than the middle of the fifteenth, when James I., on his return from his long but fortunate detention in England, made this place his principal royal seat. Its resemblance to Windsor, where, captive although he was, he had passed the happiest years of his life, and his affection for which he has himself celebrated with so much tenderness in his "Quair," is supposed to have been one of the principal motives of his partiality. His son and successor, James II., was born here; and one of the still-existing apartments in the castle is renowned as the scene of a deed of bloody ferocity perpetrated by this monarch. The powerful family of the Douglasses had been for many years the chief source of disturbance in the kingdom, and had indeed shown on various occasions nothing short of a determination to dispute the possession of the supreme authority with the reigning house. The laws of honorable warfare were probably but little regarded on either side in that savage age; and in a contest especially waged for so high a prize as was here at stake, it was to be expected that men's passions should be maddened to a readiness for any excess. In the year 1440, William earl of Douglas, a youth of sixteen, with his brother, was allured into the castle of Edinburgh, and there basely murdered. While the unsuspecting victims of treachery were seated at table, a boar's head, the well-known intimation that their lives were forfeited, was placed before them, and they were forthwith led, first to a mock trial, and thence to the block. There is much force and even a sort of rude sublimity in the old rhythmical malediction which refers to this deed, and used probably to be muttered afterward as an incentive to vengeance by the adherents of the slaughtered noblemen:—

"Edinburgh castle, town, and tower,
God grant thou sink for sin.
And that even for the black dinour
Earl Douglas gat therein!"

The possessions of the family, however, were not taken from them on this occasion, but were bestowed upon an uncle of the late earl. It was William, the son of this uncle, who met with his bloody fate in Stirling castle. He had raised an army and formed a confederacy of the nobility with the avowed intention of setting at defiance the royal authority. On this the king invited him to come to Stirling that they might settle the matters of dispute between them peaceably in a personal conference. The promise of a safe convoy induced the earl to trust his person within the royal castle. At first he was treated with all hospitality and apparent kindness.

* The Anglo-Saxon kingdom of Northumbria, or Bernicia, extended from the Humber to the Forth.



Stirling Castle.

James then led him to his private closet, and they entered into conversation. By degrees their altercation grew warmer, James insisting that Douglas should dissolve his rebellious confederacy, while the latter steadily refused to obey the command. At last the king, rising from his seat in fury, exclaimed, grasping his dagger as he spoke, "If you will not break this league, I shall,"—and instantly plunged the weapon in the earl's heart. The apartment in which this murder was perpetrated is still known by the name of the *Douglas' Room*. It is in the northwest corner of the castle, in the suite of rooms which anciently formed part of the royal residence, and are now occupied by the fort-major. Some years ago a skeleton was found in a cleft of the rock immediately under the window of this room, which was supposed to have been that of the unfortunate earl.

One of the buildings in the castle is called the palace, being a quadrangular edifice, with a small court in the centre. It was built by James V. Here is a room designated the king's room, or the presence, the roof of which was formerly adorned with a series of carvings in wood, in the very highest style of art. About half a century ago one or two of these ornaments fell; and the incident was taken advantage of to pull down the roof altogether, and to convert the hall into a barrack. Some years ago, however, a few of the old figures, after passing through various hands, fell under the notice of Mrs. Maria Grahame, a lady well qualified to appreciate their merit, and she immediately took means to collect together as many more of them as could be recovered. Engravings of those that could be found were made from her drawings, and published at Edinburgh, in 1817. The figures are all of them full of grace and spirit, and, considered as the productions of so remote an age, are altogether wonderful. Nor are they less interesting in another point of view; for there is every reason to believe that they are not fancy sketches, but resemblances taken from living originals. The countenances of James I. and his queen, Jane Beaufort, of James IV. and his queen, Margaret Tudor, of James V. and his second wife, Mary of Guise, as well as a few others, have been identified among those that remain.

The ground immediately around the castle, and which is walled in as a royal park, contains various monuments of antiquity. Among them is an eminence, on the northeast, where criminals used to be executed, alluded to in the "*Lady of the Lake*," in the speech put into the mouth of Douglas as he makes his way up the rock:—

"Ye towers! within whose circuit dread
A Douglas by his sovereign bled;
And thou, O sad and fatal mound!
That oft has heard the death-axe sound,
As on the noblest of the land
Fell the stern headsman's bloody hand!"

Here also is the round table, where it is said that tournaments were anciently held, with the adjoining seat from which the dames of the court viewed the contest, still distinguished by the name of the *Ladies' Rock*. This, too, is introduced by Scott:—

"The vale with loud applauses rang,
The Ladies' Rock sent back the clang," &c.

And so frequently in ancient times was the country in the neighborhood of this important fortress the scene of the meeting of hostile armies, that no fewer than twelve battle-fields are pointed out from the summit of the rock—the glorious field of Bannockburn, the Marathon of Scotland, among the rest.

Numerous specimens of the towers and castles occupied by men of note in the middle ages still exist, though mostly in a decayed state. Those which indicate the greatest strength and consequence are—Lochmaben castle, the residence of the Bruces, lords of Annandale; Hermitage (Roxburghshire), which belonged to a powerful noble named Lord Soulis; Douglas, the residence of the earls of Douglas; Turnberry (Ayrshire), the residence of the earls of Carrick; Bothwell, another stronghold of the Douglasses; Tantallon (Haddingtonshire), the residence of the earls of Angus, a branch of the Douglas family; Dunnottar (Kincardineshire), the seat of the Earls Mareschal; and Doune (Perthshire), the stronghold of Robert, earl of Fife, brother of Robert III., and governor of Scotland. Four places of strength—Edinburgh, Stirling, Dunbarton, and Blackness castles—are still kept in repair at the public expense, and serve as barracks for foot soldiers.

CHAPTER XLIV.

MANSIONS.

THE mansions of the nobility and gentry of Scotland do not differ in any important respect from similar classes of structures in England. The "hall" is, however, completely wanting in Scotland, and there are comparatively few specimens of the Elizabethan style. Turbulent times being more recent in Scottish than in English history, the chief mansions of an unfortified character in the northern kingdom are not of earlier date than the reign of Charles II., and most of them are much later. In many instances, the whole or part of the original castellated buildings which stood on the same site are retained.

Before the reign of James III. (1460-'88), there seems to have been no mansion besides the regular tower, with its surrounding inferior buildings, and external wall or barmkyne. In that, and one or two of the ensuing reigns, a few mansions were built, in an ornamental style, having, for instance, an elegant front looking inward to a quadrangular court; yet, in these instances, the outside of the building was still a plain and almost dead wall, calculated for defence. Crichton castle (Edinburghshire) and Linlithgow palace are examples. In the reign of James VI., the favorite style was the tall square tower; but this was now rendered somewhat more ornamental by means of sundry flourishes, such as minor towers projecting like pepper-boxes from the corners. Glammis castle (Forfarshire) is a superb specimen of this class of mansions.

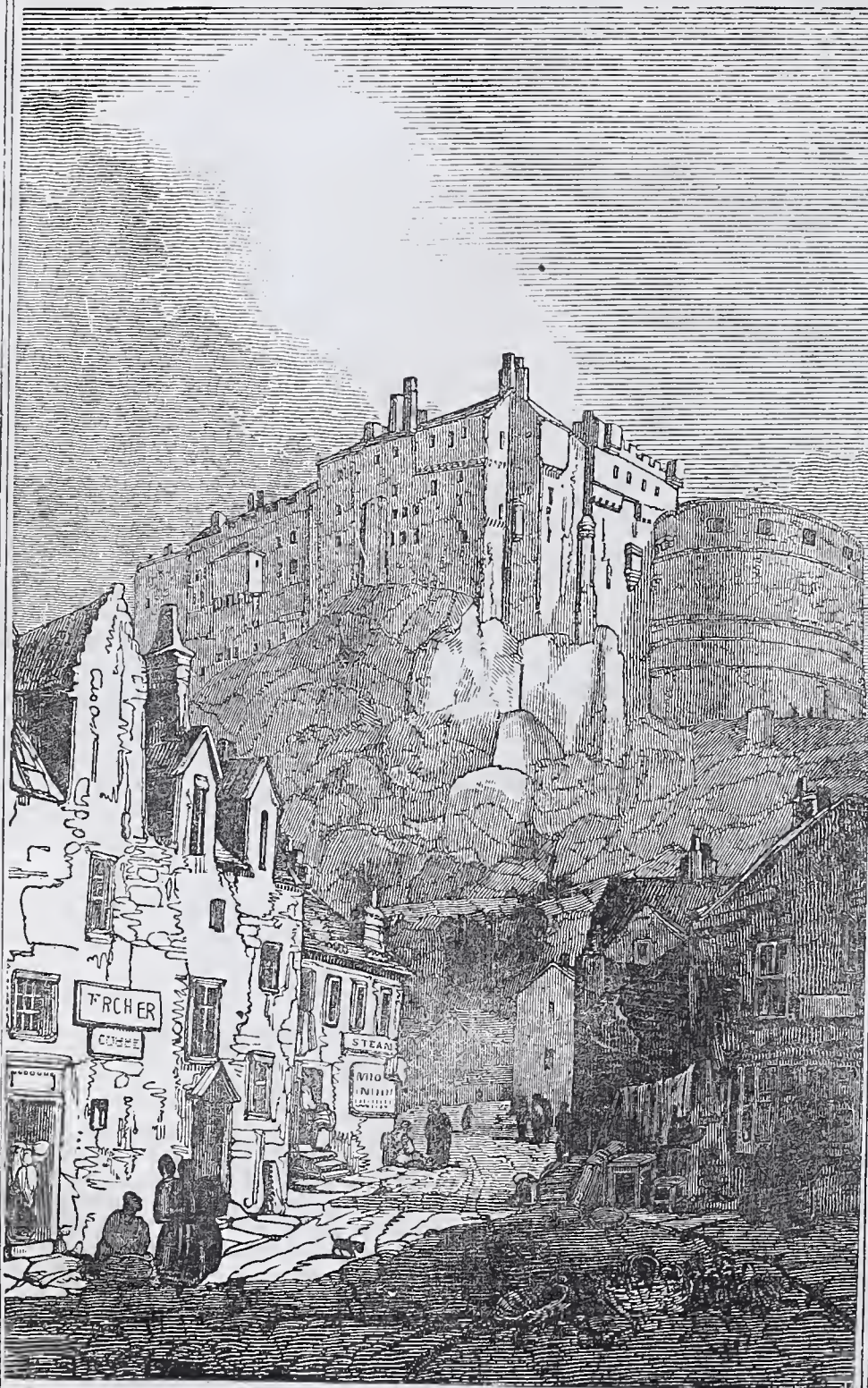
In the reign of Charles II., mansions were for the first time built in anything like pure Grecian taste. This was introduced by Sir William Bruce, of Kinross, baronet, an architect of considerable skill, and of whose works the modern Holyrood palace, and his own house of Kinross, are examples. During the last century, the mansions built in Scotland have partaken of all the changes of taste passing through England, from the heavy barrack-like structures of Sir John Vanburgh, to the light and elegant Grecian style of Adam. We have now chateaux in the style of the middle ages (Gordon castle, Banffshire, and Colzean, in Ayrshire); Grecian structures by Adam (Hopetoun house, Linlithgowshire); mansions in the Doric and more sombre Grecian style since introduced (Hamilton palace, a superb example); and, very lately, a few specimens in the priory and Elizabethan styles.

CHAPTER XLV.

CHIEF TOWNS.

EDINBURGH, the capital, is situated in the county of the same name, on a cluster of eminences, distant between one and a half and three miles from the Firth of Forth. The city is composed of two principal parts, the Old and New Towns, the former being built on a long narrow eminence gently rising toward the west, where it terminates in a lofty and abrupt rock, on which the castle is situated, while the latter occupies lower ground toward the north. The town is universally built of a fair sandstone, which retains its original color in the newer parts of the town and in the best public buildings, and forms one of the most important features of Edinburgh.

The New Town is laid out on a regular plan of rectangular streets and squares, exhibiting in general much architectural elegance. Between the Old and New Towns, and between various sections of the New Town itself, as well as in the centres of the principal squares, there are gardens laid out in the modern landscape style, forming delightful places of recreation. It is chiefly owing to the unequal



Edinburgh Castle.

ground on which Edinburgh is situated, the massive elegance and regularity of its buildings, the intermixture of ornamental pleasure-ground, and the picturesque hills immediately adjacent, whence distant and extensive prospects are commanded, that this city makes so great an impression on most strangers.

Formerly the seat of the government of the country, Edinburgh is still that of the supreme law courts and of a flourishing university. It is also to a great extent a city of residence, not only for affluent persons connected with the country, but for strangers desirous of enjoying a society of moderate habits, and the benefits of education for their children. Its leading classes are thus composed of legal practitioners, learned persons, and families in independent circumstances. It is only in a small degree a manufacturing town, the principal trades being the brewing of ale (for which the town is celebrated), coachmaking, the weaving of shawls, and the printing and issuing of literary productions. The leading periodical publications are the well-known *Edinburgh Review*, *Blackwood's* and *Tait's* magazines, and a *Philosophical and Medical Journal*, besides which there are a number of smaller size. The town is distinguished for its numerous banking institutions, which exert an influence on the general trade of the country. Within a few miles of the city, on the *Esk* river, there are various paper-mills, at which vast quantities of paper are made, both for the home trade and for exportation to London. A railway in course of execution to Glasgow is expected to prove of great benefit to both cities.

Among the remarkable objects in the city, the most striking is the castle, a large fortress romantically situated on the summit of a mass of igneous rock, between two and three hundred feet in sheer height. It contains, besides various batteries and other fortifications, an ancient palace, in which Queen Mary was delivered of her son James I., of Great Britain, and a modern barrack, in which a foot regiment is usually quartered. In a well-protected room, are shown the crown, sceptre, mace, and sword, which formed the regalia of the Scottish line of princes. The courts of law are situated in the centre of the old town, and are composed of a great hall, formerly the meeting-place of the Scottish parliament, rooms for the two various divisions of the civil court and for the lords ordinary, a room for the high court of justiciary (supreme criminal court), and other accommodations. The extensive libraries belonging respectively to the advocates (barristers) and writers to the Signet (solicitors), are adjacent. Holyrood house, the palace of the Scottish kings, is situated at the lower extremity of the principal street of the Old Town. The oldest part is a mass of building erected by James V., containing the presence-chamber, bedroom, and other apartments, used by Queen Mary, with some of the original furniture; as also a gallery, furnished with (generally imaginary) portraits of the kings of Scotland. The apartments of the queen are to be regarded with no ordinary interest, both as furnishing a curious and faithful memorial of the domestic accommodations of a princess of the sixteenth century, and on account of that extraordinary incident, the murder of David Rizzio, which took place within them. Another part of the building, erected in the reign of Charles II., contains the apartments used by George IV. for his levee in 1822, and a suite of rooms which furnished accommodation to Charles X., of France, and his family, during the years 1831, '32, '33. Closely adjoining to the palace, are the ruins of a Gothic church, originally that of the abbey of Holyrood, and latterly a chapel-royal.

The college is a large modern quadrangular building, in the southern quarter of the city. It contains class-rooms for the professors (thirty-three in number), a library of splendid proportions and decoration, and an extensive museum of natural history. The university is chiefly distinguished as a school of medicine; but it is also the means of preparing a great number of the native youth for the professions of law and divinity. The Register house is a beautiful building, planned by Adam, in a conspicuous part of the New Town: it contains the records connected with the legal business of the country. The Royal institution is the general appellation of an elegant building facing the centre of Princes street, and containing halls for various public bodies, as the Royal Society of Edinburgh, the Antiquarian Society of Scotland, the Scottish academy of painting and sculpture, and an academy for instruction in drawing. Of places of worship, the most remarkable are St. Giles's church in the Old town (once the cathedral), a Gothic building of the fifteenth century, lately renovated; the Trinity college church, also a Gothic building, founded by the queen of James II. of Scotland; St. George's, St. Stephen's, and St. Andrew's, modern churches of the establishment; and St. Paul's and St. John's, elegant Gothic chapels



Heriot's Hospital, from the Castle Hill, Edinburgh.

of the episcopalian body. There are two Roman catholic chapels, and many dissenting places of worship. Of the other public buildings, the most remarkable are the Infirmary; the hospitals for the maintenance and education of poor children, of which Heriot's is the most elegant; the Surgeons' and Physicians' halls; and the offices of the bank of Scotland and Royal bank. On the Calton hill are situated some other public structures, as the county jail and Bridewell, monuments to Nelson, Dugald Stewart, and Professor Playfair, an astronomical observatory, and a small portion of a building designed as a national monument to the Scotchmen who perished in the last war, but which will probably never be completed. The population of Edinburgh in 1831, was one hundred and thirty-six thousand three hundred and one.

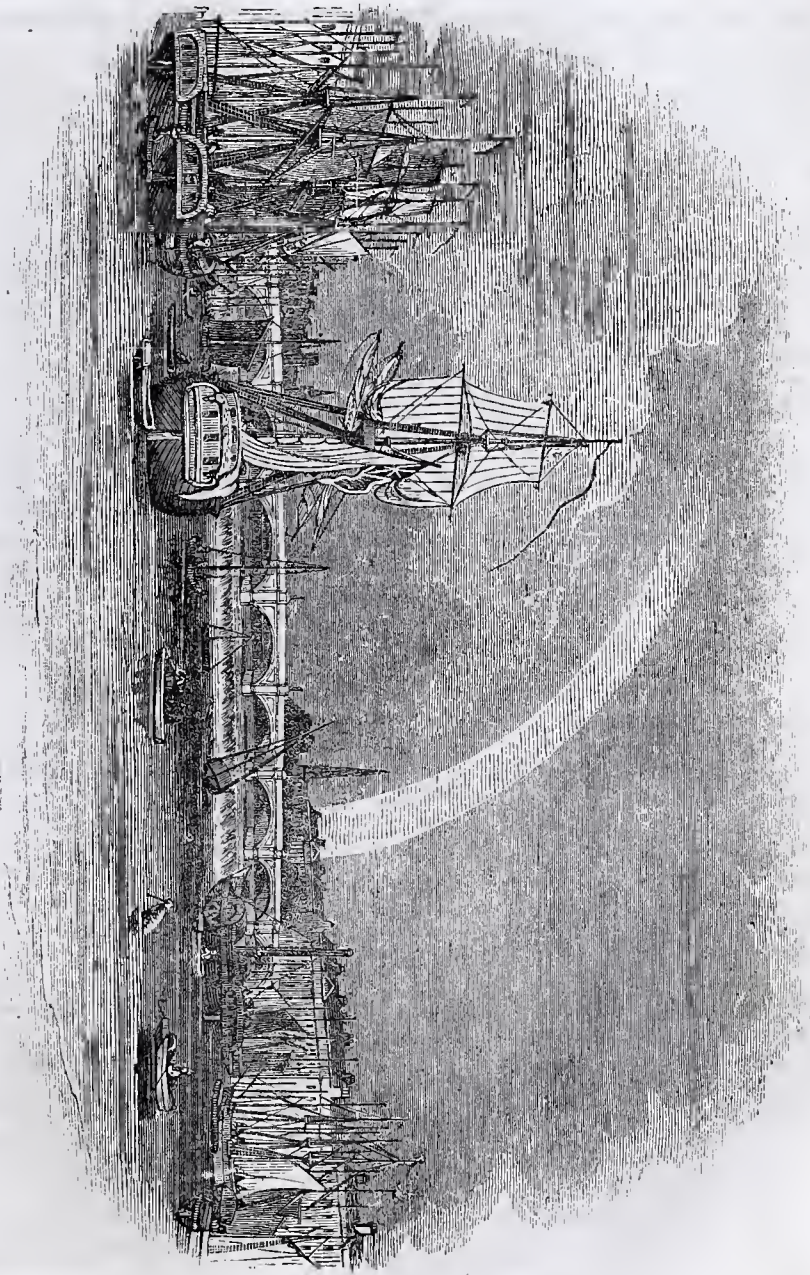
Leith, the seaport town of Edinburgh, and recently constituted an independent parliamentary burgh, is situated at the efflux of the rivulet of the same name, which originally constituted its harbor. The older part of the town is crowded and mean, but in the outskirts there are some good streets. The town is connected with Edinburgh by a broad and beautiful road, above a mile in length, denominated Leith walk. Besides the quays skirting the embouchure of the river, there is a range of wet-docks; but the harbor, after vast efforts to improve it, continues to labor under several strong natural disqualifications. During spring tides, the utmost depth of water on the bar at the mouth of the river is seventeen feet—during neap tides, fourteen feet; and it is rarely that a vessel of four hundred tons can gain admission. The want of deep water at Leith is partly supplied by a harbor at Newhaven, a stone-pier at Granton, and a chain-pier at Trinity, which serve as places of embarkation and debarkation for steamers and other vessels devoted chiefly to passengers. The chief foreign trade of Leith is with the ports in the Baltic and north of Europe; next to this in importance ranks its intercourse with the West Indies. But the imports of Leith are chiefly for local consumption, and bear little reference to the great manufacturing business of the country. For the coasting trade there are various companies, each of which has several vessels in employment. Among the ports with which regular intercourse is carried on by steam, may be mentioned London, Hull, Newcastle, Aberdeen, and Rotterdam. The tonnage belonging to Leith is on the decline: it was, in 1826, 25,674; in 1832, 23,094; in 1835, 22,073. The amount of tonnage which entered the harbor in 1835 was 340,540. The gross amount of customhouse duties in 1834 was 386,905*l*. In Leith there are several breweries, a sugar-refining establishment, and several manufactories of soap, candles, ropes, and glass. The customhouse, an elegant modern building, is the seat of the board of customs for Scotland. In 1831 the population of Leith was twenty-five thousand eight hundred and fifty five. The town, in union with Newhaven, Portobello, and Musselburgh, returns a member to parliament.

Glasgow, the most populous city in Scotland, occupies a highly advantageous situation on the banks of the Clyde, in Lanarkshire, a few miles from the place where the river expands into an estuary, forty-two miles from Edinburgh, three hundred and ninety-seven from London, and one hundred and ninety-six from Dublin. The external appearance of this great city is elegant and impressive. The streets are regular in arrangement, and substantially built of smooth stone. The public buildings are in general handsome, and, in most instances, disposed in such a manner as to be seen to advantage. The more ancient part of the city extends along the line of the High street, between the cathedral and the river; the more modern and elegant part stretches toward the northwest. On the left bank of the river, and connected by three bridges, is situated the populous barony of Gorbals, bearing the same reference to Glasgow which Southwark bears to London. Westward from the lowest of the bridges, both sides of the river are formed into quays, which, owing to recent operations for deepening the channel, are now approached by vessels drawing about fourteen or fifteen feet water. The quay on the right or north bank is denominated *Broomielaw*; it has recently been extended to three thousand three hundred and forty feet in length, while that on the south bank is one thousand two hundred and sixty feet.

Glasgow took its rise as a dependency of the cathedral of the bishops (latterly archbishops) of the see bearing its name. It was not, however, till long after the reformation, that it became a seat of considerable population. About the middle of the eighteenth century, it had acquired a considerable share of the import colonial trade, which it still retains; but, during the last seventy years it has chiefly been



Glasgow, with Stockwell Bridge, from the South Bank.



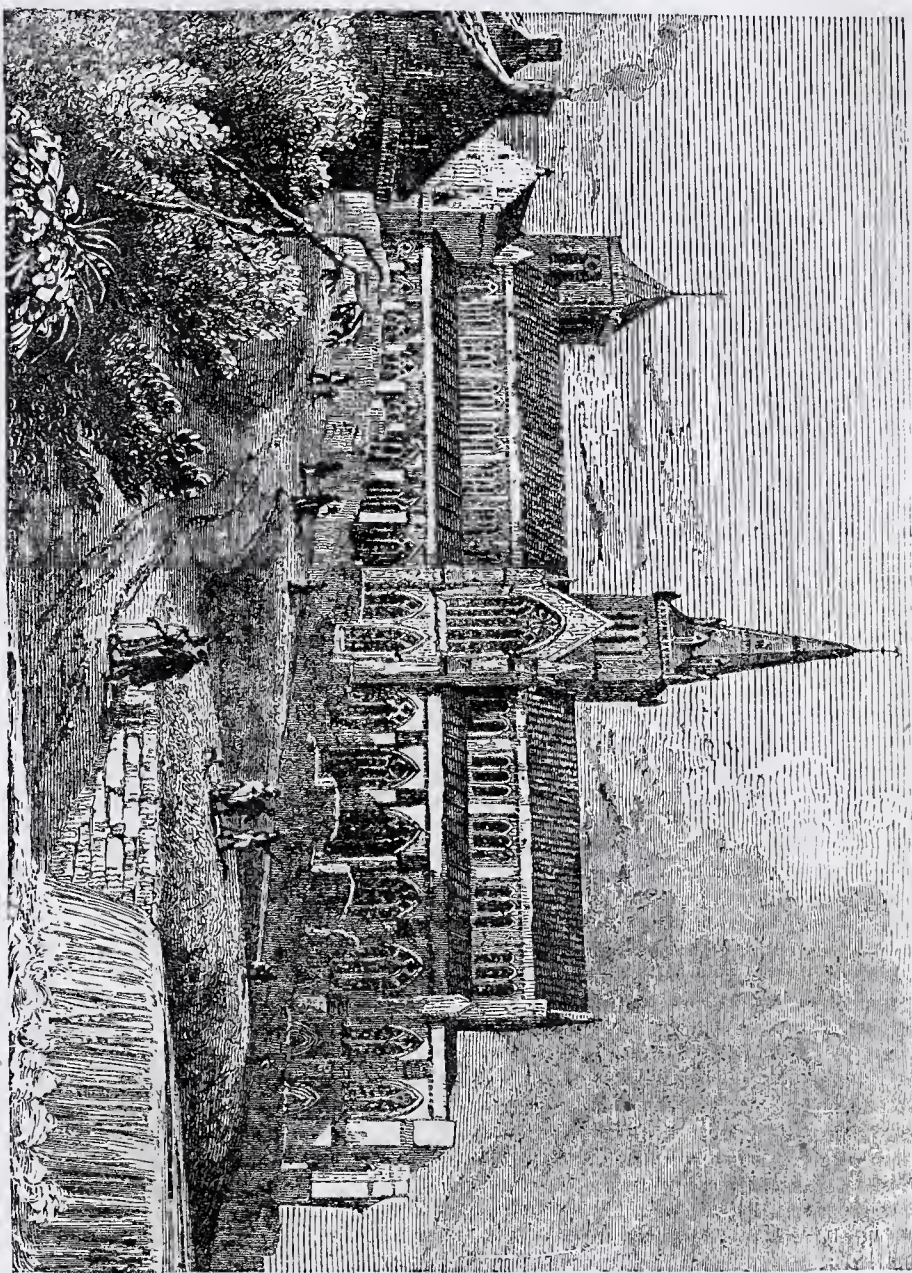
New Broomielaw Bridge, Glasgow.

distinguished as a seat of manufactures. The weaving of lawns, cambrics, and similar articles, commenced in Glasgow in 1725. The advantages enjoyed by the city for the importation of cotton, in time gave a great impulse to that species of manufacture. In 1834, out of one hundred and thirty-four cotton-factories existing in Scotland, one hundred belonged to Glasgow, and the importation of cotton into that port amounted to ninety-five thousand seven hundred and three bales. In the weaving of this material, upward of fifteen thousand power-looms, and thirty-two thousand hand-loom weavers, were at the same time employed by the manufacturers of Glasgow. Of calico-printing establishments there are upward of forty. It would be vain to attempt an exact enumeration of the less prominent features of the business carried on in Glasgow. The chief articles of importation, beside cotton, are sugar, rum, tea, tobacco, and timber. The chief articles manufactured or prepared, besides cotton goods, are sugar, soap, glass, iron, ropes, leather, chymical stuffs, and machinery. There were recently seven native banks, and several branches of other banks. During a year extending from a certain period in 1839, to a certain period in 1840, five thousand four hundred and eighty-four vessels, of two hundred and ninety-six thousand three hundred and two tonnage, arrived at the Glasgow harbor; the customhouse revenue of 1839 was £468,975, and the harbor dues of the twelve-month ending August 31 of that year were £45,826. It is worthy of remark, that the Clyde was the first river in the elder hemisphere on which steam navigation was exemplified. A steam-vessel of three-horse power was set afloat on the river in January 1812, by Mr. Henry Bell of Helensburgh; and there were twenty such vessels on the Clyde before one had disturbed the waters of the Thames. In 1835 there were sixty-seven steam-vessels, of six thousand six hundred and ninety-one aggregate tonnage, connected with Glasgow, eighteen of which plied to Liverpool, Belfast, Dublin, and Londonderry. Within the last few years, the city has become a great centre of the iron trade, this metal being produced in the neighborhood to an annual amount of not less than two hundred thousand tons. As a necessary consequence of the commerce and manufactures which flourish in Glasgow, the city has a vast retail trade in all the articles of luxury and necessity which are used by human beings. But no circumstance connected with Glasgow could give so impressive an idea of the height to which business has been carried in it, as the rapid advance and present great amount of its population. By the census of 1791, the inhabitants were 66,578; and by the first government census in 1801, they were 77,385. But these numbers have been increased in 1811, 1821, and 1831, respectively to 110,749, 147,043, and 202,426. As the increase is about 7,000 per annum, the present amount (1846) is supposed to be fully 320,000—a mass of population which, at the time of the Union, could not have been dreamt of as likely ever to exist in any Scottish city.

The cathedral, or high church, is situated in the northern outskirts of the city, near the upper extremity of the High street. The bulk of the existing building was constructed at the close of the twelfth century, in place of another which had been consecrated in 1136, but was destroyed by fire. It consists of a long nave and choir, a chapter-house projecting from the northeast angle, a tower and spire in the centre, and a crypt extending beneath the choir or eastern portion of the building. In the nave, termed the Outer High Kirk, was held the celebrated general assembly of the church, November, 1638, by which episcopacy was abolished and pure presbytery replaced—the first great movement in the civil war.

The elevated ground, near the east end of the cathedral, has been formed into an ornamental place of sepulture, under the appellation of the Necropolis. Since 1831, the society of merchants, its proprietors, have expended the sum of £6,000 in laying out about twenty-four acres of ground in walks and shrubberies, and in connecting the spot with the opposite slope by means of a bridge across the intermediate rivulet. The taste manifested in the whole scheme and in its execution, is extremely creditable to the city. The walks, several miles in extent, command an extensive view of the neighboring country. They are skirted by numberless sepulchral plots and excavations, where already affection has been busy in erecting its “trail memorials,” all of which, it may be mentioned, are fashioned according to certain regulations, with a view to general keeping and effect.

The College buildings are situated on the east side of the High street, about half-way between the cathedral and the Trongate. They consist in a sort of double court; the front which adjoins to the street being three hundred and thirty feet in length, and three stories in height. The whole edifice has a dignified and venerable

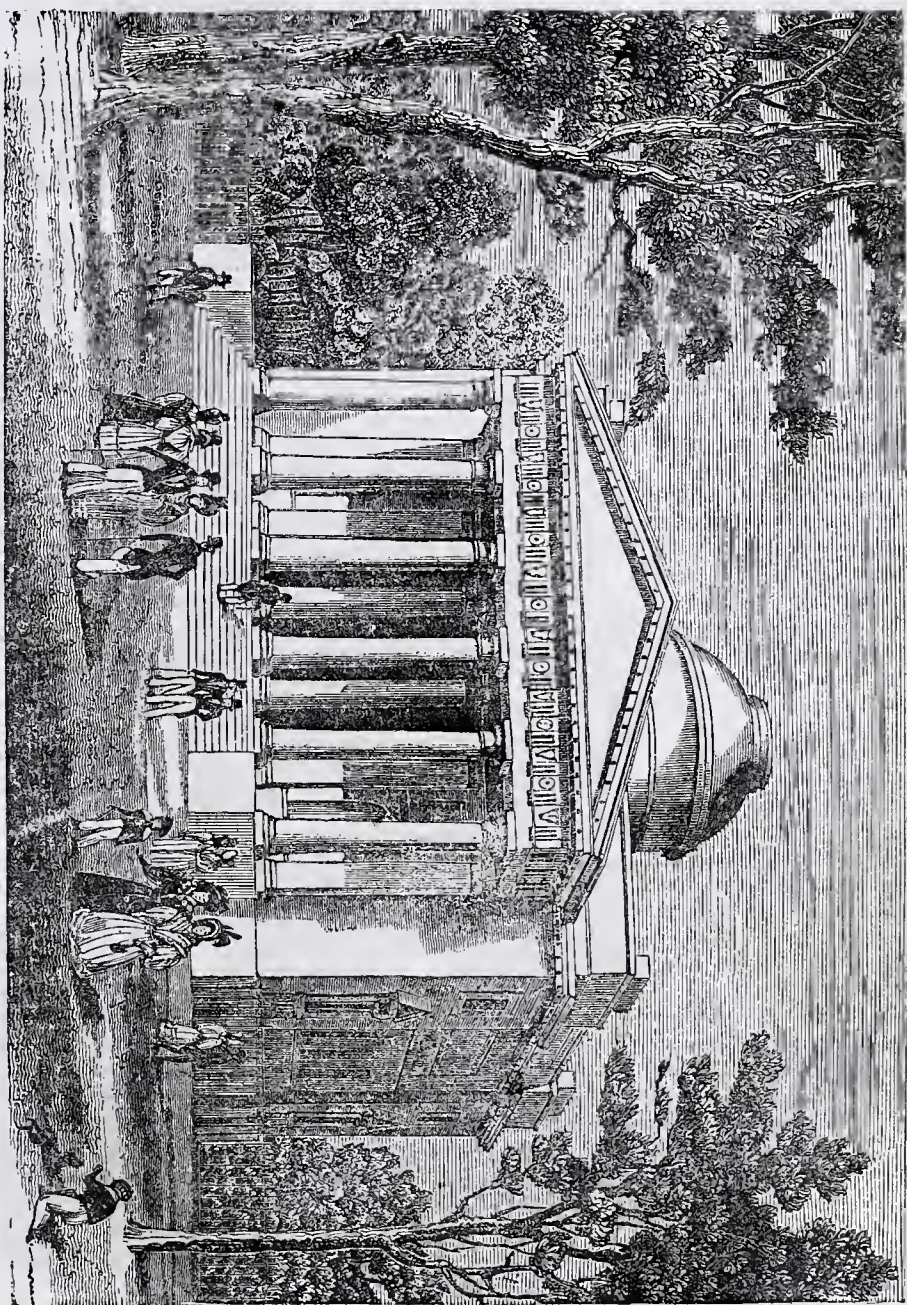


Glasgow Cathedral.

appearance. A large piece of ground behind the college is formed into a park or green, interspersed with trees and hedges, and always kept in grass, to be used by the students as a place of exercise or amusement. In the college there are appointed professors or teachers of about thirty branches of science, theology, and polite literature. At the back of the interior court stands the modern Grecian building which contains the Hunterian Museum. This is a large collection of singular natural objects, coins, metals, rare manuscripts, paintings, and relics of antiquity, originally formed by Dr. William Hunter, the celebrated anatomist, and bequeathed by him to this university, at which he received his education. While the college confers professional education, popular instruction is attainable, under unusually advantageous circumstances, through the medium of the Andersonian institution, an extensive school of science founded at the close of the last century, and connected with which there is a general museum, containing many curious objects, and constantly open to the public.



Monument of John Knox, Glasgow.



Hunterian Museum, Glasgow.

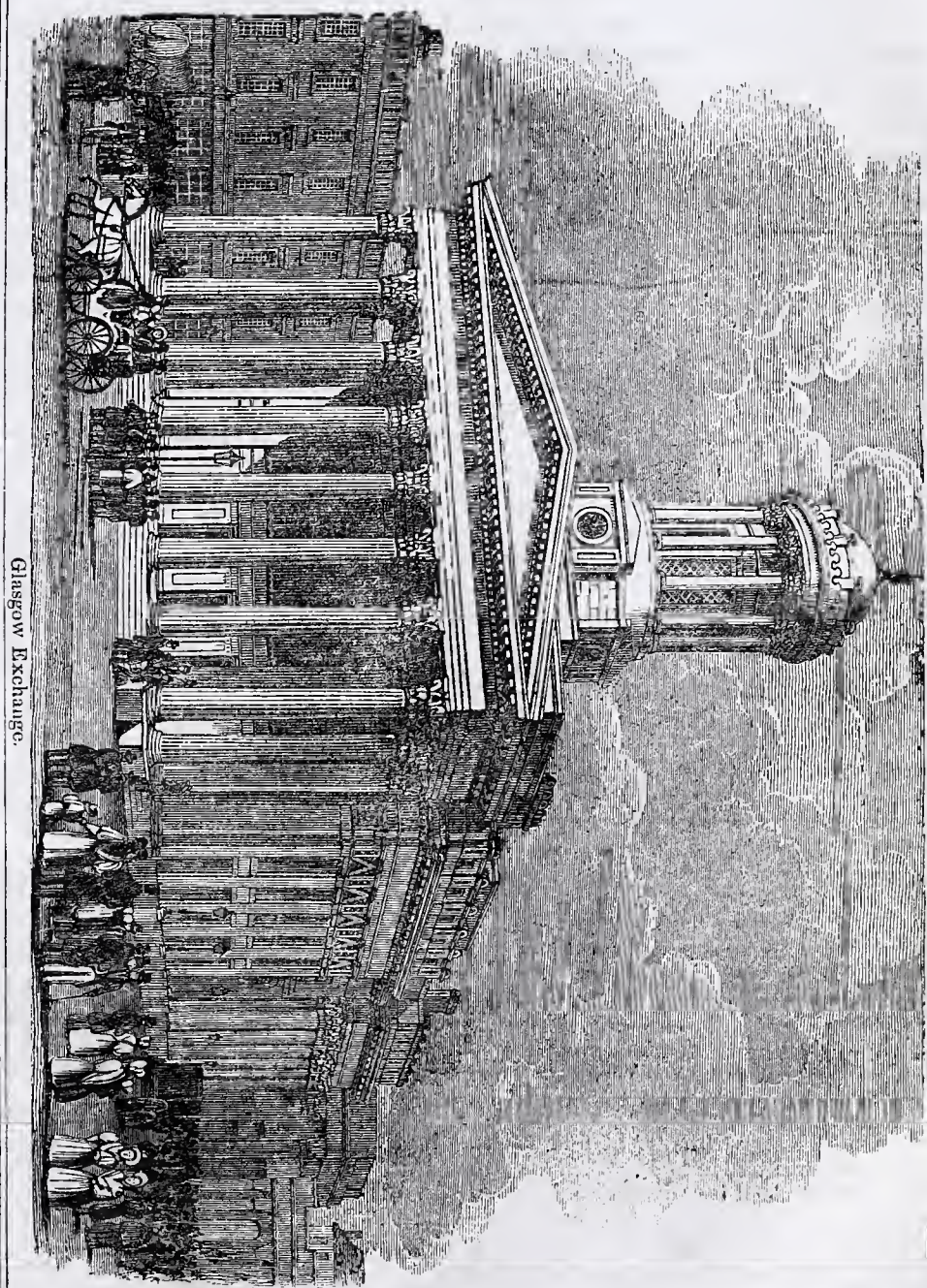
The most attractive modern building in Glasgow is the Royal exchange in Queen street, a most superb structure, erected in 1829, as a point of assemblage for the merchants in the western part of the city. The principal room is a large hall, supported by a double row of columns, and used as a reading-room. The front of the exchange consists of a magnificent portico, surmounted by a cupola; and, as the building is isolated, the other sides are also of decorative architecture. Altogether, this building, supported by a set of very elegant domestic structures of similarly august proportions, impresses the mind of a stranger as something signally worthy of a great city.

Since the reform act of 1832, Glasgow has the privilege of returning two members to parliament. The places of worship, charitable institutions, and associations of various kinds for public objects, are very numerous. A laudable zeal for the improvement of education marks the city; and a normal school, or seminary for the rearing of teachers—the first in the empire—has been erected under the auspices of a private society.

The means of communication in connexion with Glasgow, are suitable to the character of the city as one of the greatest emporia of commerce and manufacture in the world. Besides a river, navigable by vessels drawing fifteen feet of water, and which gives the means of a ready communication with the western shores of Britain, with Ireland, and with America, the Forth and Clyde canal, of which a branch comes to Port-Dundas, in the northern suburbs, serves to convey goods and passengers to the eastern shores of the island, while canals of less note connect the city with Paisley and Johnstone in one direction, and with the great coal-fields of Monkland in the other. There is also a railway, which traverses the same great coal-field, by Garnkirk and Wishaw, and conveys passengers as well as coal and goods. Another railway, connecting the city with Kilmarnock, Ayr, and the port of Ardrossan, was opened in 1840. In 1841, a third railway, to Edinburgh, was opened, and others were projected. The steam communication between Glasgow and Liverpool, Dublin, and other Irish ports, is conducted on a scale which may be called grand. The vessels are superb in magnitude, decoration, and power; and they sail frequently and rapidly. The steam intercourse between Glasgow and various places in Scotland, both for passengers and objects of traffic, is also conducted on a great scale: among the places touched at in the Clyde and to the south are Greenock, Dunbarton, Dunoon, Rothesay, Arran, Gourock, Troon, and Ayr. Among the places to the north to which vessels sail regularly, are Inverary, Campbellton, Oban, Staffa and Iona, Mull, Arisaig, Skye, Stornoway, and Inverness. In opening up markets for West Highland produce, and introducing luxuries in return, these vessels have also been of marked service, insomuch that the value of property in those hitherto secluded districts has experienced a considerable rise.

The country around Glasgow, particularly toward the south, abounds in busy towns and villages, of the former of which the most remarkable is Paisley, situated in Renfrewshire, on the banks of the small river Cart, seven miles from the city above described. The external appearance of this town is pleasing, and the streets are in general composed of substantial buildings. It originated from an abbey founded in 1160 by Walter, the first of the Stewarts, and of which considerable remains still exist. Paisley is a noted seat of the manufacture of shawls, and also of cotton thread, gauzes, and velvets. In the town and abbey parish exclusive of the large village of Johnstone, there were lately three cotton spinning-mills, and seven or eight thread-mills; two steam-loom factories; six flour-mills; a calico-printing work; many bleaching works and dye-houses; three breweries and two distilleries; several timber-yards; and several iron and brass foundries; an alum and copperas work, a soap work, and a tan-yard. An idea of the present extent of manufactures, in comparison with what it was in the last age, may be obtained from the fact that, while the whole of the manufactures in 1760 amounted to fifteen thousand pounds, the annual computed value of the goods made in and around the town a few years ago was a million and a half sterling.

Paisley has been changed by the reform acts from a burgh of barony into a parliamentary burgh of the first class, returning one member, divided into wards for municipal purposes, and managed by sixteen councillors, including a provost, four bailies, and a treasurer. Being, though not the county town, the seat of the sheriff court, it is adorned by a large modern castellated building, containing a jail, bride-well, and series of court-rooms; but unfortunately the edifice is placed in a low situ-



Glasgow Exchange.

ation, without reference to salubrity or external influences. Devoted as the inhabitants of Paisley are to the pursuits of business, they have long been honorably remarkable for a spirit of inquiry and a desire for intellectual improvement. The population of Paisley, like that of Glasgow, has experienced a very rapid advance: the inhabitants of the town and surrounding parochial district, in 1821, amounted to 47,003; in 1831, to 57,466.

Notwithstanding the inland situation of Paisley, its means of communication are unusually facile and ample. The White Cart, navigable from its efflux into the Clyde to the Sneddon in the outskirts of Paisley, presents all the advantages of a canal. A canal leaves the southern suburbs of Glasgow, and, passing Paisley, terminates at Johnstone. Paisley is also benefited by the Glasgow and Ayr railway, which passes it.

In Renfrewshire, also, is situated Greenock, the greatest seaport of the kingdom, as far as customhouse receipts form a criterion, these having been, in 1834, £482,138 in gross amount. This town occupies a strip of sloping ground facing toward the Firth of Clyde, at the distance of twenty-four miles from Glasgow. In the seventeenth century it was a mere hamlet; now it is a handsome town of about 30,000 inhabitants, containing harbors and quays of 2,200 feet in extent, to which belonged, in 1828, two hundred and nineteen vessels, of 31,929 aggregate tonnage, and employing 2210 men. It is now, moreover, by virtue of the reform acts, a parliamentary burgh of the first class, returning one member of parliament. The principal branches of commerce conducted in Greenock have reference to the East and West Indies, the United States, and British America, to which last it yearly sends out great numbers of emigrants. Sugar-baking and ship-building are other branches of industry carried on here to a great extent. The customhouse, fronting to the Firth of Clyde, is a beautiful Grecian building, erected in 1818, at an expense of thirty thousand pounds. The Tontine hotel, situated in one of the principal streets, and containing a large public room, twelve sitting-rooms, and thirty bed-rooms, was built, in 1801, by four hundred subscribers of twenty-five pounds each, the whole expense being thus ten thousand pounds. There is also an elegant building, in the character of an exchange, which cost seven thousand pounds, and contains, besides two spacious assembly rooms, a reading-room, to which strangers are admitted gratuitously for six weeks. In Greenock there are two native banks, besides branches of several others.

James Watt, the improver of the steam-engine, was born in Greenock, in 1736; and an institution for literary and scientific purposes, designed to serve as a monument to him, and termed the Watt institution, has been recently completed. The situation of the town, on the shore of a land-locked basin of the Firth of Clyde, with the mountains of Argyllshire and Dunbartonshire rising on the opposite side, is very fine.

Among Scottish towns, Aberdeen ranks next to Edinburgh and Glasgow. It is situated in the county named from it, on a level piece of ground between the effluxes of the rivers Dee and Don, one hundred and ten miles from Edinburgh. Its external appearance produces a favorable impression; the principal streets are straight and regular, and the buildings at once substantial and elegant, the chief material used in constructing them being a gray granite found here in great abundance. New Aberdeen, or what is now generally called Aberdeen, is close to the efflux of the Dee, the mouth of which forms its harbor; and old Aberdeen, where the ancient cathedral and King's college are situated, is a comparatively small town, about a mile distant, on the bank of the Don. The entire population is about 60,000.

Aberdeen is a city of great antiquity. It became the seat of a university by the erection of King's college, in Old Aberdeen, in 1495; Mareschal college, in New Aberdeen, was added in 1593. By the recent reform acts, it is a royal burgh of the first class, divided into districts for municipal purposes, and returning one member to parliament. Aberdeen is at once a seat of manufactures and a seaport. There are four great houses engaged in the cotton manufacture, two in the woollen trade, and three in flax-spinning and the weaving of linen. Ship-building, iron-founding, comb-making, rope-making, and paper-making, are also carried on to a great extent. The fisheries of the river Dee, and the export of granite, are sources of considerable income. Of the exports for the year 1836, we may notice, as indicating at once the extent and nature of the agricultural and manufacturing products of the district, the following items: Flax manufactures, thirty thousand four hundred and eighty-two, barrel bulk; cotton manufactures, sixteen thousand three hundred and thirty-six do.;

woollen manufactures, twenty thousand and forty-three do. ; oats, sixty-nine thousand two hundred and thirty-nine quarters; meal, thirteen thousand three hundred and seventy-five bolls; sheep and lambs, one thousand four hundred and seven; pigs, three thousand and thirty-four; butter, nine thousand two hundred and sixty-one hundred-weight; eggs, eight thousand one hundred and twenty, barrel bulk; pork, six thousand and six hundred-weight; salmon, seven thousand seven hundred and fifty-seven do. ; granite stones, one thousand seven hundred and thirty-eight tons. The chief imports are—coal, of which there was unloaded, during the same year, three hundred and seventy-one thousand nine hundred and fourteen bolls; lime, cotton, flax, wool, wood, wheat, flour, salt, iron, whale-blubber, and miscellaneous goods, consisting of groceries, &c. There were, in 1836, belonging to the port of Aberdeen, three hundred and sixty vessels, tonnage forty-two thousand and eighty, employing three thousand one hundred and ten men.

Aberdeen is entered from the south by Union street, an elegant double line of buildings, a mile in length and seventy feet wide, in the centre of which a ravine pervaded by a rivulet is crossed by a noble arch of one hundred and thirty-two feet in span, upon a rise of twenty-two. King street, which opens up the city from the north, is sixty feet wide, and contains many splendid edifices. Besides these two main streets, there is a considerable number of modern squares and terraces. The public buildings are much scattered, but are generally of an elegant appearance. The Public Rooms, erected by the gentlemen of the counties of Banff, Aberdeen, Kincardine, and Forfar, for meetings, dancing assemblies, &c., and partly occupied as a reading-room, constitute a handsome Grecian structure, fronting to Union street. On the north side of Castle street stands the Town-House, and in the centre is the Cross, a curious structure re-erected in 1822, and containing sculptures of eight Scottish sovereigns between James I. and James VII. Mareschal college, formerly a plain old structure, has lately been re-edified in handsome style, chiefly at the expense of the nation. King's college consists of a handsome but ill-assorted quadrangle, surmounted by a fine tower and spire. The two colleges are attended by about five hundred students, nearly equally divided between them. In Old Aberdeen are also to be seen the remains of the cathedral, consisting of the nave of the original building, with two towers at the west end. The ceiling is composed of oak, cut out into forty-eight compartments, each displaying in strong colors the armorial bearings of some eminent person, whose name is given below in Latin, and in old Gothic character.

Dundee, situated in Forfarshire, on the shore of the Firth of Tay, may be considered as the fourth town in Scotland, whether in population, or in the importance conferred by wealth. It is a busy seaport, and the chief seat of the linen manufacture in Scotland, and indeed in Great Britain. A series of docks, the erection of which cost three hundred and sixty-five thousand pounds, extend along the shore where, a century ago, there was only a small quay in the form of a crooked wall. The dues collected for the harbor were, in 1839, fifteen thousand nine hundred and ninety-six pounds; the tonnage belonging to it, in 1839, was forty-four thousand eight hundred and eighty-two. In the year ending May 31, 1839, the quantity of hemp and flax imported was thirty-two thousand four hundred and sixty-two tons, and the number of pieces of sheeting, bagging, sailcloth, sacking, and dowlas, exported, was seven hundred and seventeen thousand and seventy, the value of which was about one million five hundred thousand pounds, being considerably greater than the entire exports from Ireland. In 1839, the number of spinning-mills was forty-one, and of flax-mills (that is, mills for weaving) forty-seven; besides which there are several machine-factories, candle-factories, sugar-refineries, and establishments for rope-making and ship-building. This great hive of industry contained, in 1831, a population of 45,355, to which it is probable that 20,000 have since been added. The town is represented in parliament by one member.

Dundee contains one handsome *place*, denominated the High street, in the centre of the town, and several other good streets; but the most elegant and commodious private dwellings take the form of suburban villas. There is a handsome modern building, serving the purposes of an exchange and reading-room; besides which, the most conspicuous public buildings are the Town-House, and a building comprehensively called the Seminaries, containing an academy and grammar-school. The High Church of Dundee was an interesting building of the thirteenth century, with a massive tower one hundred and fifty-six feet high; but the whole structure, except-

ing the steeple, was destroyed by fire in January, 1841. Dundee is connected by railways with Arbroath and Brechin on the one hand, and Newtyle on the other. It carries on a regular steam intercourse with London.

Perth, the chief town of the county of the same name, is celebrated on account of its elegant appearance and the beautiful situation which it enjoys on the banks of the Tay, here a broad and majestic stream. Umbrella-cloths, gingham, handkerchiefs, and shawls, are manufactured in Perth in considerable quantities, the number of weavers employed being sixteen hundred; and there are a flax spinning-mill and an extensive bleachfield. The river being navigable to this place for small vessels, there is a harbor, chiefly for coasting trade. The salmon fisheries on the river are a source of considerable income: the fish are sent to London, in boxes, the number of which, in 1835, was five thousand, amounting to two hundred and fifty tons. Perth had in 1831, a population of 20,016, and it is represented by one member in parliament.

The streets of Perth are generally rectangular, and well built of stone. The river is spanned by a substantial bridge, connecting the town with a small suburb on the other side, and forming part of the great north road. The town contains most of the public buildings found in places of similar character and magnitude: the ancient church of St. John, an elegant suite of county buildings, an academy, and town-hall, are those most entitled to notice within the town. In the environs, besides a lunatic asylum, there is a structure designed, when finished, to serve as a national reformatory for criminals. The beauty and salubrity of Perth are much enhanced by two beautiful pieces of adjacent public ground, respectively entitled the North Inch and South Inch. In the midst of a highly cultivated vale, pervaded by a great river, and with lofty mountains in the distance, Perth, especially when its own neat appearance is considered, may be said eminently to deserve its appellation of "the fair city."

Dumfries, the principal town of Dumfries-shire (seventy-one miles from Edinburgh and thirty-four from Carlisle), enjoys a beautiful situation on the Nith, which is navigable to nearly this point for small vessels. Inclusive of a large suburb on the opposite side of the river, the population is about 14,000. Dumfries has a few small manufactures, but its chief importance rests in its character as a kind of provincial capital and seat of the county courts, and as an entrepôt for the transmission of cattle and pork to the English market. Eighty-four vessels belong to the port, with an aggregate tonnage of 5783; and steam-vessels sail regularly to Liverpool. The town has a neat and clean appearance, has some handsome public buildings, and is the seat of considerable refinement. In St. Michael's churchyard repose the remains of Robert Burns, over which his admirers have reared a handsome mausoleum.

Inverness (one hundred and fifty-five miles from Edinburgh) is the principal seat of population in the northern counties of Scotland. It is an ancient royal burgh, a seaport for the export and import trade of the district, and the seat of the county courts. The situation on the river Ness, near its junction with the sea, with some picturesque eminences in the neighborhood, is one of great beauty, and the town itself is well built and remarkably clean. Inverness is often called the highland capital, being within the line of the Grampians, and the residence of many persons connected with that district. The population of the town and parish, in 1831, was 14,324. Among objects of interest may be enumerated—the remains of a fort built by Cromwell; Craig-Phadric, an eminence crowned by a vitrified fort; and the moor of Culloden (distant five miles), the scene of the fatal battle which extinguished the hopes of the house of Stuart.

The principal towns in Scotland next to those already enumerated, are—in Ayrshire, Kilmarnock, a prosperous seat of the coarser woollen manufacture—population about twenty thousand; Ayr, the capital of the county, a thriving market-town, and in a small degree a seaport—population (including dependencies) about seventeen thousand; in Stirlingshire, Stirling, the county town, remarkable chiefly for its castle, a favorite seat of the Scottish monarchs, and from which the most splendid views are commanded; Falkirk, a busy market-town, and the centre of a district remarkable for its iron-foundries, particularly the celebrated one of Carron—population about seven thousand; in Fifeshire, Dunfermline, the principal seat of the manufacture of damasks, diapers, and similar fabrics—population about eighteen thousand; Cupar, the county town; Kirkcaldy a busy manufacturing and seaport town; St. Andrews, the seat of an ancient university; in Forfarshire, Montrose, and Arbroath, active seats of the linen trade, and likewise seaports: in Morayshire, Elgin, an ancient royal burgh, and county town.

DESCRIPTION OF IRELAND.

CHAPTER XLVI.

GEOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTION.—GEOLOGICAL STRUCTURE.— MINERALOGY.

THIS large and important section of the United Kingdom is geographically described as an island situated to the west of Great Britain, from which it is divided by a strait, called at different places St. George's channel, the Irish sea, and North channel, the Atlantic forming the boundary on the other sides. Of a more compact form than Great Britain, it is nevertheless penetrated by a considerable number of deep bays and estuaries, which give it an outline upon the whole irregular. Besides enjoying this advantage for internal navigation, it may be considered as more favorably situated for foreign commerce than either England or Scotland. It lies between fifty-one degrees nineteen minutes and fifty-five degrees twenty-three minutes north latitude, and five degrees nineteen minutes and ten degrees twenty-eight minutes of west longitude from Greenwich; but the greatest length, from Brow-head in the county of Cork, to Fair-head in the county of Antrim, is three hundred and six miles, and the longest transverse line, between similar points in the counties of Mayo and Down, one hundred and eighty-two miles. The entire area appears, from the latest and best measurement, to include thirty-one thousand eight hundred and seventy-four square miles, or twenty millions three hundred and ninety-nine thousand, six hundred and eight English statute acres.

Ireland is divided into four provinces, namely, Leinster, on the east; Munster, on the south; Ulster, on the north; and Connaught, on the west: these are subdivided into thirty-two counties, two hundred and fifty-two baronies, and two thousand three hundred and forty-eight parishes.

In superficial character, Ireland may be called a hilly or mountainous country, since there are few spots where the view is not terminated by lofty hills or mountain scenery. Generally speaking, the mountains stand in groups, and are more or less detached from each other; but in some districts they form ridges of great extent. The *Mourne* range, in the county of Down, lies west and east, ending with *Slieve Donard*, which rises two thousand eight hundred and nine feet above the level of the sea, and is the highest of the northern mountains. The *Slieve Bloom* mountains, placed in nearly the centre of the island, run north and south, intersecting the King's and Queen's counties: in this range, sometimes called the *Ard na Erin*, or Heights of Ireland, the rivers Nore, Barrow, and Suir, commonly called by the country people the Three Sisters, take their rise. In Connaught there is a fine range, of which the *Twelve Pins* form a part; and in Munster, a ridge of varied height extends from Dungarvon, in the county of Waterford, across the kingdom, into the county of Kerry. It may be here observed, that wherever the Irish term *slieve* is applied to a mountain, it expresses that that mountain forms part of a range. The highest mountain in Ireland is *Carran Tual*, at Killarney, being three thousand four hundred and ten feet above the level of the sea. *Mount Nephin* and *Croagh Patrick*, two conspicuous mountains in Mayo, are respectively two thousand six hundred and thirty-nine and two thousand four hundred and ninety-nine feet high.

Some, however, of the counties, though possessing a very varied surface, can only boast of hills, as Armagh, Monaghan, Cavan, and Louth, while others are in general very level: Meath, Kildare, Longford, and Galway, are of the latter character. A distinguishing peculiarity of the country, whether in its hilly or more level districts, is its generally green appearance, a circumstance arising from its fertile soil and moist and temperate climate, and which has led to its receiving the appellations of the "Emerald Isle," and "Green Isle of the Ocean"—names sung by its poets, and repeated with affection by its natives in all quarters of the world.

In the lower and less reclaimed portions of the country, there are various extensive bogs or morasses, which disfigure the beauty of the scenery, and are only serviceable in supplying fuel to the adjacent inhabitants. The chief of these morasses is the Bog of Allen, which stretches in a vast plain, across the centre of the island, or over a large portion of Kildare, Carlow, and the King's and Queen's counties. In this bog, the beautiful river Boyne takes its rise, flowing thence northeastward to the sea at Drogheda, on the borders of the county of Louth: much of this bog has been drained and brought into tillage, and there is good reason to think that in time the whole of it will be reclaimed. Along the banks of the River Inny, which, rising in Lough Iron, in the county of Westmeath, crosses Longford and falls into the Shannon, are large tracts of deep wet bog, only exceeded in dreariness by that which for miles skirts the Shannon, in its course through Longford, Roscommon, and the King's county. All these bogs might be easily reclaimed, could they be drained; but that can not be accomplished, as the Inny and the Shannon are kept up to their present level by the numerous eel-weirs which at present interrupt their course. There are also many tracts of bog in the western counties, and many detached bogs both in Ulster and Munster; but none of such great size as those above mentioned. It is remarkable, that, notwithstanding the quantity of water contained in these extensive bogs, there arises from them no miasma injurious to health. This is attributable to the large portion of tannin they contain, which possesses so strong an antiseptic quality, that bodies plunged into a deep bog remain undecayed, the flesh becoming like that of an Egyptian mummy. It sometimes happens that a bog, overcharged with water during a rainy season, breaks through the obstruction which the drained and more solid part affords, and, rushing forward, overflows large portions of good land. This occurred in the year 1821, when the Bog of Clara, in the county of Westmeath, suddenly burst into the valley of the river Brusna, and totally destroyed many hundred acres of excellent land: a similar occurrence took place, to a large extent, a very few years since, in the county of Antrim.

Ireland is described as a thickly-wooded country, not only by her early native writers, but by all those English authors who have given any account of the country, from the days of Giraldus Cambrensis, about A. D. 1185. Morrison (1596) and Davis (1605), mention the forests in which the poor Irish took refuge; and all the scenery of Spenser's *Fairy Queen* is drawn from the River Bandon, which he celebrates as the "pleasant Bandon, wood y-crowned," as it is to this day. Boate, in his *Natural History*, mentions the great extent of wood then standing; but not long did it so stand, for wherever Cromwell's army came, the forests were felled, and the country laid bare. In most cases, the bogs give ample testimony to the truth of these statements, some supplying large quantities of fir, which burns with a pleasant aromatic smell, and a flame so brilliant that it is often used in place of candles. In other bogs, only oak is dug up, and sometimes sawn, and yew of a great size, which takes a fine polish and is used for cabinet-work. There are still, in a few favored spots, some remains of the ancient oak and ash woods, as at Killarney, at Glengarriffe near Bantry, in Connemara, in some spots of the county of Wicklow, and in Donegal, near the beautiful but little Lough Van, where a few red deer are still to be seen. Near the mouth of the Suir, at the foot of the Knockniedan mountains, is a wood of the pine species, commonly called Scotch fir, of such size and hardness, that Mr. Nimmo, the engineer, pronounced it to be equal to the best Memel timber, and used it in constructing the pier at Dunmore. Many noblemen and gentlemen have planted largely and with great success, their flourishing plantations giving promise that the country in a few years will again be furnished with trees.

Ireland possesses many large and remarkably fine rivers, several of which form lakes at certain points in their course, and fall into the sea at the head of spacious bays every way suitable for navigation. The principal rivers are the *Foyle* and the



Bay of Glengariff

Bann, which flow into the Northern ocean ; the *Boyne*, the *Liffey*, and the *Slaney*, which empty themselves into the Irish channel ; the *Barrow* and the *Nore*, which, falling into the *Suir*, pour their united streams into the bay of Waterford ; the *Blackwater* and the *Lee*, which run southward, their embouchures being at Youghal and Cork ; the *Shannon*, the *Gweebarra*, the *Erne*, the *Moy*, the *Mang*, and the *Lane*, which flow into the Atlantic. Among inland lakes or loughs, the largest is *Lough Neagh*, in Ulster, which exceeds in size any lake in the United Kingdom, its length being twenty miles by a breadth of from ten to twelve : its waters are discharged by the *Bann*.

Ireland stretches westward into the Atlantic, and is indented, as has been stated, by deep bays, protected by jutting promontories, which have hitherto withstood the force of the boisterous ocean to which they are exposed. The rock which forms the bed or bottom of these bays, is generally composed of the secondary or carboniferous limestone, while the projecting promontories to the north and south of each are composed, for the most part, of primary or transition rocks, and particularly of granite, mica-slate, quartz rock, grawacke, and old red sandstone conglomerate. In Ireland the coast is mostly mountainous, and the interior flat. Thus, we find the mountains of Antrim on the east ; of Derry and Donegal on the northwest coasts : those of Sligo and Kerry west and southwest. The slate districts of Cork and Waterford form the south and southeast, while the mountains of Wicklow, and those still higher ones of Louth and Down, are situated on the eastern coast. The interior of the island is, generally speaking, composed of flat or gently swelling grounds, covered with rich and fruitful soil. This peculiar conformation of the surface has been the origin of the great number of rivers with which the Irish coast abounds. They have their sources in the neighboring mountains, whence they flow directly to the sea. The flatness of the interior of Ireland has been the probable cause of those vast accumulations of alluvial matter called *escars*. They possibly originated at a period when the country was at least partially submerged, from eddies formed by undulations on the surface. The origin of the great tracts of bog found so generally in the flat country, may be attributed to the water pent up, as we even now find it, above the level of the dry country, by gravel hills, which form a continuous ridge, though not of equal height, round the edge of the bog. The central district of Ireland contains upward of one million of acres of bog, comprehended between Wicklow head and Galway, Houth head and Sligo.

A vast tract of limestone extends in an almost unbroken line from the north of Cork to the south of Fermanagh, with an intermixture toward the eastern coast of clayslate, grawacke, and grawacke-slate, with veins of granite interspersed, as is the case in the counties of Down, Armagh, and Wicklow. The southern coast is composed of limestone and old conglomerate, with red, purple, and gray clayslate, which may be distinctly seen along the shores of Cork and Waterford. In the southwestern coasts are large tracts of coal formation ; while the western are formed of granite, carboniferous limestone, including the lower limestone, calp or black shale series, and the upper limestone, with a tract of the coal formation. There are also in Galway, Mayo, and Sligo, tracts of mica-slate, quartz rock, yellow sandstone, and conglomerate. The northern division, consisting of the counties of Donegal and Derry, is chiefly mica-slate, with an intermixture, in the northern part of Donegal, of granite, quartz rock, and primary limestone ; while the county of Antrim is composed of tabular trap. The counties in which coal is worked are Carlow, Kilkenny, Donegal, Limerick, Tyrone, and part of Tipperary.

Ireland is rich in minerals, and contains gold, silver, though not in large veins, as well as copper, lead, coal, and sulphur. Her quarries also produce a variety of beautiful marbles, as the black marble of Kilkenny, the green of Galway, and the many-colored of Fermanagh. The quarries of Killaloe and of Valentia, in the county of Kerry, afford large-sized, excellent slates, now coming extensively into use. Nor should the inexhaustible supply of extremely fine building-stone, which the hills south of Dublin afford, be left unmentioned. Of this granite, the particular vein which is worked at the coast village of Bullock, has been found to withstand the wash of the sea better than any other kind of stone, and is exclusively reserved for the building of the lower stories of those lighthouses which are exposed to violent sea-wash. The stones are cut on the spot, and shipped ready fitted to their places.

CHAPTER XLVII.

CLIMATE.—VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.—ANIMALS

THERE is but a small part of Ireland more than fifty miles from the sea, a circumstance which fully accounts for the mildness of the climate, its equability, and its humidity. The temperate atmosphere of Ireland was held in high estimation, and strong testimony to its goodness is borne by the older historians. At the beginning of this century (1804), Dr. Hamilton, in his account of Antrim, mentions the equable distribution of heat throughout the island, and the perpetual verdure of the fields, unimpaired by either solstice. This equability of temperature is clearly proved by the fact, that delicate plants thrive in the county of Donegal, close upon the Northern ocean. *Arbutus* and *laurestinus* there grow healthily, and myrtles so luxuriantly, as to cover the walls of houses up to the second story. On the shore of Lough Swilley, near Ramelton, the *agapanthus* and the *fuschia* abide in winter in the open ground, and flower extremely well in summer. The southern part of Ireland is considerably warmer than Ulster. The snow seldom lies for any considerable time. The spring is earlier, fruit ripens a fortnight sooner, and the harvest is fit for the sickle a month before that of the northern, and a fortnight before the midland districts. In the counties of Cork and Kerry, tender shrubs, such as bay, *verbena*, *fuschia*, &c., grow with extraordinary luxuriance; and the native *arbutus* enriches the wild scenery of Killarney and Glengariffe. The moisture of the climate is its greatest defect; but this varies remarkably in degree. The atmosphere of the western side of Ireland is naturally much more humid than that of the eastern, exposed as it is to the influence of the moist vapors of the great Atlantic, which, attracted by the mountains, rest upon their heads and pour down rain into the valleys. Thus, the greatest quantity of rain which has been known to fall—forty-two inches—was near Colooney in the county of Sligo, while the smallest quantity is at Armagh, which, though a very hilly, is comparatively an inland district. In a paper lately read at the Royal Irish academy, it appeared, from comparative registers carefully kept, that, in the year 1839, there had been, at Monks Eleigh, which is about forty miles from the seacoast of Suffolk, 21·726 inches of rain; while at Toomavara, in the county of Tipperary, and about forty miles from the western coast, there fell 40·552 inches, or very nearly double the quantity: but during the same year, only 21·7 fell at Armagh—a curious instance of the differences arising from local circumstances. Again, the county of Dublin is wetter than that of Wicklow, because the clouds charged with rain pass over Dublin toward the channel, free from every obstacle, while those which cross Wicklow, striking upon the mountains and hills, deposite their moisture upon their western slopes, leaving the eastern sides of the country between them and the sea dry and in sunshine.

The botany and zoology of Ireland generally resemble those of the neighboring island. The cultivated plants and useful animals are identical. There are, however, some peculiar to Ireland.

The more remarkable plants which are indigenous and peculiar to Ireland, are—the *arbutus unedo*, or strawberry-tree, found at Killarney, particularly beautiful from its abundance of red fruit; the *rosa Hibernica*, Irish rose, found near Belfast; the *ulex striata*, Irish furze, found sparingly in the county of Down, distinguished from common furze by its upright mode of growth and softer texture; the *taxus Hibernica*, frequently called Florencecourt yew, from having been first observed in Lord Enniskillen's demesne in the county of Fermanagh—its growth is upright, resembling that of the cypress, and its foliage dark green; the *menziesia polyfolia*, Irish menziesia, a very beautiful plant, whose large purple heath-like bells decorate the wild districts of Galway; the *erica Mediterranea*, discovered by Mr. Mackay at Connemara in 1829, a distinct variety of the Corsican heath, very ornamental in the flowering season; the *erica Mackayana*, many-branched cross-leaved heath, sent to Mr. Mackay from Connemara, and named after him by Sir William Hooker, professor of botany, Glasgow (the three last species of heaths are also natives of the Pyrenees); the *saxifraga geum*, kidney-leaved saxifrage; *s. hirsuta*, hairy saxifrage; *s. elegans*,

small round-leaved saxifrage; *s. umbrosa*, variety serratula, saw-leaved saxifrage, or London pride. The above four species and varieties, new to Britain and Ireland, were discovered by Mr. Mackay, in the mountains near Killarney, in 1805. They all resemble the London pride of the gardens, which also grows wild on the mountains of Galway, Mayo, Sligo, and Donegal.

With respect to the animal kingdom, there were formerly several races of cattle considered as exclusively Irish, of which two kinds are still extant—the *Kerry breed*, which is black, very small, and beautifully proportioned, the limbs and horns being most delicately made; they are excellent milkers, both for quantity and quality, and are remarkable for their gentle and affectionate disposition: they are to be had only in the remote barony of Iveragh, in the county of Kerry. The other species, which is always called the *old Irish breed*, is usually of a bright red, the back hollow, the *pin* bones high, the head very small, a fine eye; the horns growing upright, and remarkably slender, as are the legs. They are very deficient in beauty, but are valuable for the dairy. The *red deer*, though now extremely scarce, are still to be found at Killarney, in some of the wild mountain districts of Kerry, and the adjoining part of the county of Cork; at Shanbally in the county of Tipperary, and in Donegal. The *wolf-dog*, now almost extinct, is still occasionally to be seen in Ireland; the *curly-haired liver-colored water-dog*, which is considered quite an Irish breed; the large *black and tan* breed of terriers, peculiar to the county of Kerry. Squirrels are common in some places. The *gillaroo-trout* is peculiar to Lough Neagh; and the *pollen*, or fresh-water trout, was long considered so, but has lately been found in the Scottish lakes. The *dorchar* is also peculiar to Lough Neagh; it is of a darker color than trouts usually are. It is generally supposed that Ireland possesses no reptiles, but this is a vulgar error. The toad and frog are common.

CHAPTER XLVIII.

THE PEOPLE.—THEIR CHARACTER AND CIRCUMSTANCES.— POPULATION.

THE bulk of the Irish people are a branch of the Celtic race, who were probably the first settlers in the island. The peasantry, throughout nearly the whole country, are of this origin, and in many parts they still speak the Celtic (here termed the Irish) language. The chief exception from this rule is in the north, where a great number of the humbler, as well as middle classes, are descended from comparatively recent settlers of Scottish extraction. Another rather conspicuous exception is found in Connaught, particularly in Galway, where a considerable number of the people seem to be of Spanish descent. Families of English extraction are comparatively rare among the laboring class in Ireland.

The Irish laboring classes, and a large portion of the middle classes, being thus generally of Celtic origin, are marked by many peculiar features. Their character includes much quickness of apprehension and ingenuity, considerable natural eloquence and wit, and affections much warmer than those of most European nations, but is generally acknowledged to be deficient in reflection and foresight, and liable to a peculiar irascibility, which often attaches to a mercurial and upon the whole amiable character. The upper, and a large portion of the middle classes, being of Saxon descent, are not much different from the same classes in Great Britain; but, in as far as any difference exists, it may be said to consist in a tincture of the Celtic, or genuine Irish character, as just described. This admixture is perhaps that which gives the educated Irish so much artistic talent, whether to be exhibited in literature or the arts, while some of the more peculiarly English characteristics are less conspicuous.

Limiting the consideration of the social state of Ireland to what is peculiar to it, we may first advert to a conspicuous practice of the landowners—*absenteeism*. By absentees are not meant those noblemen, who, being Englishmen, have also large

possessions in Ireland, and whose estates (with some glaring exceptions) are usually well and justly managed; but those sons of Erin who prefer living in any other country to remaining in their own, although it is at home only that a man receives his just meed of respect. This system of absenteeism has led to that of *middlemen*, who hold large tracts of land from the head landlord, and relet this land at a much increased rent to farmers; these, again, let to a third set of under-tenants at rack-rents; and this lowest grade of tenantry divide their small farms among their sons, thus creating a race of farming poor, who are unable to till their holdings properly, and miserably increasing a population raised but a step above the pauper. There is perhaps no more thriving person than the *farming-landholder*, who, contented with his condition, rises with his laborers, holds his own plough, and superintends the management of his farm; but the state of the *cottier* is often far from being a happy one. The discomfort of this class may be said to arise chiefly from three causes—low wages, high rents, and, most of all, from the want of steady employment. The too great subdivision of land, as will be shown, in treating of the condition of the peasantry in the provinces, is another cause of the general poverty and want of comfort of the cottier. Under the excitement of war prices and the free trade in corn with Great Britain, agriculture advanced rapidly, and, consequently, so did the demand for labor; land rose in value, lessees were tempted to realise profit-rents by subletting their farms; and thus a class of middlemen was created, by whom the land was let in still smaller divisions, and at extreme rents. This system was an absolute bar to the encouragement which might have been given to the tenantry by the proprietors of estates. The occupying landlord pays a higher rent to the middleman than does the middleman to the proprietor, because the middleman exacts as much as he can get, without any reference to the future situation of the tenant: but the landlord has different feelings—he looks forward, and considers the reversionary interest which he has in keeping his tenant in prosperity, and his land in a state to yield a remunerating profit.

The habits of getting credit frequently at an advance of 50 per cent., of resorting to pawnbrokers, and of forming early marriages, contribute to the impoverishment of the laboring classes in Ireland. The poorer the individuals are, the more eager are they for wedlock; even the very beggars intermarry. It must, however, be admitted as some excuse, that early marriage is much encouraged by the Romish priesthood; and in fairness it must be added, that this practice contributes exceedingly to the morality of the lower classes. The superstitious regard to *wakes* and funerals, which has been handed down from ancient times, is often a deplorable drain on the slender resources of the peasant.

In considering the character of the Irish peasantry in general, it is refreshing to see some noble traits standing out in full relief against the darker shades. The Irish people are of acknowledged bravery, proverbial hospitality, affectionate to their parents and aged relatives, charitable to the mendicant, and evincing in many places, even under extreme distress, a decency of feeling, which renders them averse to soliciting eleemosynary assistance. The women, generally speaking, are modest and irreproachable in their conduct; and it must be added, that, notwithstanding the crime and wretchedness which oppress the country, the poor Irish are free from some species of vice which are but too common in other countries. During the hay and corn harvests of England and Scotland, the services of the Irish laborers are very important. They are generally sober, well-conducted, and inoffensive; laboring hard and living hard, that they may bring their earnings home to pay the rent of their little farm or dwelling. A *spalpeen*, or harvest-man, carries home from four to eight or ten pounds; to do which, he is contented, while away, almost to starve himself. There is reason, therefore, to hope, that under a better state of things, the national character would rise to a standard much higher than it has yet attained; and improvement may reasonably be expected from the happy change wrought of late years by the temperance societies, and especially by the Roman Catholic clergyman, the Rev. T. Mathew, of which evidence was given in the Ballinasloe fair of 1840, where, instead of twelve hogsheads, the quantity usually disposed of, it is believed that there were only eight gallons of whisky consumed.

The last, but by no means the most miserable class in Ireland, is that of the common vagrant. Of these, some are beggars by profession; some are obliged, from loss of employment, to become what are called *walkers*; and others are mendicants for a time only, as when their husbands are reaping the harvests in England, at

which time it is customary to lock up the house, and the wife and children walk the world until the traveller returns with his little hoard of hard-earned money. It may be asserted, that in every district of Ireland, excepting some peculiarly circumstanced portions of Ulster, there is a feeling of respect toward mendicancy, which tends to support and perpetuate it. The poor tenants of the cabins receive the wanderers, whether single or in groups; and carrying, as these do, their bedding along with them, a warm corner is allowed them, even in the only room possessed. "It is the humblest sort," say they, "that are really good to us." The vagrants that frequent fairs, markets, patrons, holy wells, and other places of religious or pleasurable resort, are better off than the other poor. A respectable evidence declared to the commissioners on the Poor-law Inquiry in the county of Meath, that the beggars at fairs were "as jolly a set as ever he saw in his life:" and in more places than one, it was stated to the commissioners that the beggars were better off than the tradesmen or laborers.

Hitherto the usual methods of supporting the pauper poor have been congregational collections, subscriptions, very extensive private charity, and of late years the application of the resources of the Mendicity Association; but the inefficiency of these means have ultimately led to the establishment of a poor-law, the general object of which is to relieve the destitution of the country. Under this system, assistance is proposed to be afforded to persons only in the workhouses of their respective parochial unions, which are now erecting throughout Ireland. It is calculated that a hundred workhouses, placed in the centre of so many unions, and capable of containing each from four to eight hundred persons, will be sufficient to accommodate all who are likely to apply for admission. For the better regulation of the system, it was enacted, that a board of guardians should be annually elected in each union, in number according as the commissioners shall see fit, the same guardians being eligible for the subsequent year. It appears that, so far as the poor-law system is as yet brought into operation, it is imperfect, and has not relieved the districts in which it has been carried into effect from the annoyance of mendicity, inasmuch as there is no compulsory law for retaining vagrants in the poorhouses; they therefore leave them at pleasure, to follow the more agreeable course of begging in the streets. Until such enactment be passed, Ireland, it would seem, will be subject to a severe taxation in support of the poor-law system, while at the same time it is not relieved of the evils of mendicancy. So far as the poorhouses are yet in operation, they seem to be well conducted; arrangements are made for the instruction of the younger portion of the inmates, and the details of food, clothing, and lodging, appear to be generally considered satisfactory.

The population of Ireland was estimated by an acute statesman of the reign of Charles II. as being then about one million one hundred thousand. Another estimate, formed in 1731, but upon data not perfectly to be relied on, made the population two million ten thousand two hundred and twenty-one. This last number seems to have been doubled before 1788, till which time Ireland was almost exclusively a pastoral country. Since then, agriculture and commerce have borne more conspicuous parts in the national industry; but circumstances unfavorable to national happiness and wealth have also been strongly operative, and the progress of the people was, till a very late date, upon the whole, downward. In proportion to the unfavorable circumstances, and most of all where the circumstances have been the most unfavorable, the population has increased. It was, at the first regular census, in 1821, six millions eight hundred and one thousand eight hundred and twenty-seven; and at that of 1831, seven millions seven hundred and sixty-seven thousand four hundred and one. What strikingly illustrates the principle here alluded to, is, that in Leinster, which contain populous towns and is a comparatively prosperous province, the increase in the ten years between these two census, was at the rate of nine per cent.; while in Connaught, where there are few towns, but a numerous peasantry in a very depressed condition, the increase was twenty-two per cent. It is a recent discovery, but a very important one, that, below a certain point in comfort of life, population is apt to experience a rapid increase, to the aggravation of all existing evils. And it is to this evil, more particularly, that a well-regulated poor-law may be considered as addressed.

CHAPTER XLIX.

ANTIQUITIES.

THE antiquities of Ireland may be classed under the heads of the cromlech, the cairn, the circle, the pillar-stone, the barrow, the dun, the lis, the rath, the ancient stone-roofed buildings, and the lofty and beautifully built round towers. The name cromlech is compounded of *crom*, which signifies fate or Providence, and *llech*, a stone, literally "the stone or altar of God." Cromlech is also interpreted to mean *an inclining stone*, from the words *cwm*, bowed, and *llech*, a stone, as spoken of on page 116. They vary in size and form, and in most instances consist of three upright supporters, two at the lower and one at the upper end, upon which the altarstone was balanced; underneath this, and between the uprights, a hollow is usually found, which is thought to have been for the purpose of facilitating the passage of cattle and children under the sacred fire—a custom which seems to be alluded to in the Scriptures, when the Israelites are reproached with passing their sons and daughters through the fire to Moloch, one of the names given to the sun.

Of the cairn there were two kinds, the burying and the simple cairn, or high place made of stones flattened on the top. These artificial high places were usually situated on an eminence; and here, on festival days, especially the first of May and the first of November, the fires of Bel were wont to be lighted. At these times all household fires were extinguished, to be rekindled by a brand from the sacred flame—a practice which continued till the time of St. Patrick, who succeeded in putting an end to it. Tumuli of this description abound in all parts of the kingdom.

Closely connected with the cairn, are the circles of upright stones, usually called druidic circles. They frequently surround a cairn, as that of New Grange, in the county of Meath, where the stones are placed about one third of the whole height, above the base: frequently they encircle a pillar-stone.

The pillar-stone is so frequently joined with the circle, cair, cromlech, and sacred grove, that it can not be passed over in silence. Numerous instances might be pointed out of lofty upright stones in many parts of the kingdom, standing sometimes singly, but most commonly in conjunction with one or more of the above-mentioned relics of pagan times. Tradition says, that formerly the people collected round such stones for worship, which is confirmed by the common expression in Irish of "going to the stone," for going to church or chapel. These stones are conceived by many to have given rise to the carved stone cross found in various churchyards, and of which one of the finest specimens is to be seen at Monasterboyce, in the county of Louth.

There are several kinds of tumuli remaining, of which the Irish names declare the original object. The Lios or Lis, which signifies a fortified house, was an artificial hill, sometimes approaching in shape to an ellipse, with a flat top, and an earthen breastwork or rampart thrown round the little plain on the summit, where was placed the dwelling, usually protected by a strong wattled paling, as is now customary among the Circassians. The duns or doons were places of strength, always perched on a rocky bold situation, and fenced by a broad wall of extremely large stones, which wall forms one of the distinctions between the dun and the lis. The rath signifies a village or settlement: these abound in all parts of the island, and are of various sizes, standing sometimes singly, sometimes so as to form a chain of posts; and frequently may be seen a large head rath, where the chieftain lived, and its smaller dependent raths, on which his retainers dwelt.

Among the earliest and peculiar antiquities of Ireland, are the low stone-roofed buildings, with high wedge-shaped roofs: of these, a few instances still exist at Kells, Kildare, Ardmore, and Killaloe. The most remarkable relics of the olden times of Ireland are the lofty round towers, of which, perfect and imperfect, one hundred and eighteen have been enumerated in various parts of the kingdom. They are built with a wonderful uniformity of plan. They are all circular, of small diameter, and great altitude. In most of them the door is at some height from the

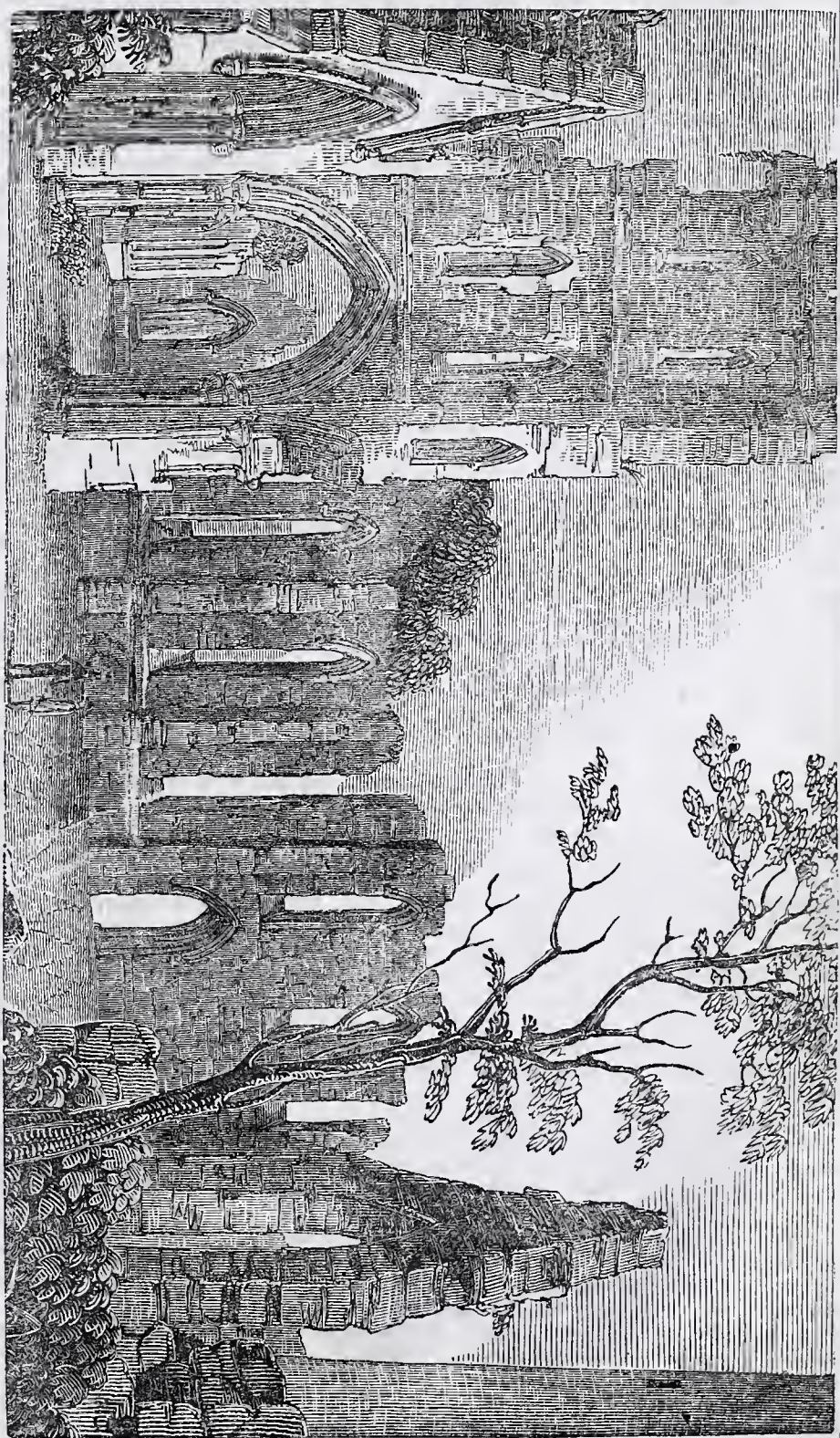
ground; small loop-hole windows, at distances in the sides, give light to the spaces where the different floors once were; and generally there were four larger-sized windows round the top, immediately below the roof, which is high and cone-shaped. There are, however, two or three towers, in which it does not appear that there ever were any windows round the top. Of the excellence of the masonry, a proof was given some years ago by the tower of Mahera, which, in consequence of having been undermined, was blown down, and lay, at length and entire upon the ground, like a huge gun, without breaking to pieces, so wonderfully hard and binding was the cement with which it had been constructed. Various theories have been offered as to the purpose for which these mysterious buildings were erected; the only clear point seems to be that they were religious, as they are always placed near churches. They vary in height from thirty-five to one hundred and twenty feet; the internal diameter from ten to sixteen feet, and the outer circumference from forty-six to fifty-six feet. Their tapering shape forms one of their most marked characteristics.

Ancient weapons and golden ornaments are from time to time dug up in all parts of Ireland, as bronze swords, exactly like those discovered at Carthage and on the field of Marathon. Multitudes, also, of spear-heads of all sizes, made of the same mixed metal, and curiously-shaped bronze rings, have from time to time been discovered, the use of which had long been a desideratum to antiquaries, when a recent event unexpectedly threw light upon the subject, and confirmed the conjecture of Sir William Betham as to their having been current money. A variety of golden articles have been discovered in many parts of the country, such as semi-lunar shaped disks, formed of thin plates of pure gold; torques, or large twisted collars for the neck; armlets, brooches, rings, pieces of gold, bell-shaped, but solid and fastened together, the use of which has not been made out; and some rings of the same shape as those of bronze, which have been proved by Sir William Betham to have been used as money.

Ecclesiastical Antiquities.—Under this head rank those buildings which may be considered as the most ancient, after the pagan remains, and which bear a peculiar character, differing from that of any extent elsewhere. Of these but few are now in existence. The stone-roofed church of St. Doulagh's, near Dublin, belongs to the earliest date; its plan and style are equally uncommon. The latter seems to have been a rude approach to the oldest Norman; it is low, and of great strength; the church, divided by a low-browed arch, seems to have had a small choir and a somewhat larger nave. There are also, strangely disposed, at various heights, small chambers, apparently for the residence of the clergy. A part of the building is used as the parish church; and the old tower has borne the addition of a belfry, so excellent was the mason-work. The beautiful and curious ruin at Cashel, called Cormack's chapel, is Norman in character, and was probably the cathedral of that diocese previous to the English invasion. It is considered to have been built in the tenth century by Cormack, who was both king and archbishop. He died about A. D. 990. It is to be observed, that both here and at St. Doulagh's, are crypts placed *over* the churches—a peculiarity known in Ireland only; the crypts in all other countries being underneath. In this very marked Irish-Norman style, there exists a few remains at Aghadoc near Killarney, at Clonathen in the county of Wexford, and near Bannow in the same county, in an ancient town, which having been, time out of mind, overwhelmed by the blowing sand from the coast, has only within a few years been discovered, but, protected by the sand, is in a high state of preservation. The peculiar character which marks these buildings, proves them to be examples of the Irish style subsequent to the age of the towers, and previous to that brought in by the British invaders.

Ireland can not boast of any ecclesiastical buildings of great richness or beauty; but there are some of respectable appearance. The two cathedrals of the capital, St. Patrick's and Christ-Church, are at least elegant in the interior. The large cathedral of Galway, and that of Limerick, are both handsome buildings, as is the cathedral of Kilkenny. These are all in good order, and in daily use.

There are numberless ruins of monasteries, abbeys, knights' preceptories, and churches. Among these, the ruins of the cathedral of Kildare deserve notice. Kildare is now of but little importance, numbering only some two thousand inhabitants, and is only interesting for its remains of ecclesiastical establishments, which are evidences of its former consideration. The principal of these remains is the cathedral, the greater part of which is in ruins, the choir only being now in a fit condition



Ruins of the Cathedral of Kildare.

for religious services. The ecclesiastical establishments for which, more than for anything else, Kildare was formerly distinguished, owe their origin to St. Brigid. This lady, who was the illegitimate daughter of an Irish chieftain, was born in the year 458. In her fourteenth year she received the veil from the hands of St. Patrick, or one of his immediate disciples. She afterward visited the abbey of Glastonbury, in Somersetshire, and on her return (or, at any rate, before 484) founded a nunnery at Kildare. About the same time an abbey was also founded under the same roof for monks, but separated from the nunnery by walls. The monks and nuns had but one church in common, which they entered by different doors. St. Brigid presided as well over the monks as the nuns, and, "strange to tell!" exclaims Archdall, the abbot of the house remained subject to the abbess for many years after the death of the celebrated foundress, which took place on the 1st of February, 523. She was interred at Kildare; but her remains were afterward removed to the cathedral-church of Down, and laid beside those of St. Patrick and St. Columb. This St. Brigid, or Bridget, became quite the virgin-saint of Ireland, and next to the names of the Virgin Mary and St. Patrick her name obtained more reverence than any other in the calendar.

The amount of the influence which this extraordinary female acquired may be estimated from the fact, that she is represented as the foundress, not only of the monastery, but of the see of Kildare. It is stated that she appointed as bishop a person variously called St. Conlæth, Conlaid, and Conlian, who, with her assistance, erected the cathedral. Some writers, however, contend that there were bishops of Kildare before this personage; but Sir James Ware prefers the authority of the persons who have written the life of St. Brigid. One of these gives this account of the transaction: "Conlian, a holy bishop and prophet of the Lord, who had a cell in the south part of the plains of Liffi, came in his chariot to St. Brigid, and abode with her; and the holy Brigid elected him bishop in her city of Kildare." In the next century, Aod Oubh, or Black Hugh, the king of Leinster, withdrew to the monastery of Kildare, of which he in time became abbot, and afterward bishop of the see. The first Englishman who occupied the see was Ralph of Bristol, who died in 1232. This prelate went to great expense in repairing and ornamenting the cathedral. In the reign of Henry VII. it had again fallen into decay, and was repaired by the bishop Edward Lane, who died in 1522. It was a fine old Gothic building, now mostly in ruins. The walls, however, are still standing, together with the south side of the steeple and the walls of the nave, which has on the south side six Gothic arches and six buttresses. The north side of the steeple is level with the ground, and is said to have been beaten down, with other parts of the building, by a battery planted against it during the disturbances in 1641. The choir, in which the church services are still performed, affords little matter for remark. It is kept in decent repair, and a handsome Venetian window supplies the place of an old Gothic one, which was much admired. The south wing, which was formerly a chapel, is a mass of ruins; but two statues in alto relievo may still be noticed. One of them represents an ancient knight of the Fitzgerald family, clad in very curiously-cut armor, and surrounded by heraldic escutcheons; and the other a bishop, with his pastoral staff and mitre, supposed to be the Bishop Lane already mentioned.

Kilconnel abbey, in the county of Galway; Corcomroe, in Clare, the finest ruin in Ireland; Holy Cross, in Tipperary; the Old Cathedral, on the Rock of Cashel; Dunbrody and Tintern abbeys, in Wexford; Jerpoint, in Kilkenny; and Lusk, in the county of Dublin, are the most noted of the ruins. Kilconnel and Lusk are remarkable for rude bas-relievs in stone, which bear a degree of resemblance to the Egyptian hieroglyphics. Many of these still retain fragments of their former ornaments of fretted stone work—Holy Cross in particular.

Military Antiquities.—The traveller in Ireland must be struck with the vast numbers of small castles which stud the whole country. They chiefly bear date about the reign of Elizabeth, by whose orders they were raised, as strongholds to overawe the wild Irish. They are usually high and square, with towers at each corner. Besides these fortalices, there are ruins of very large castles, so customarily attributed to King John, as to show that they were built in the early times. Of these, the extensive ruin at Trim, in the county of Meath, affords a fair example, as being one of the largest, and often formerly the residence of the viceroy or chief governor. Parliaments were held within its walls, and money minted there and sent into circulation.

The castle of Dunluce, about two miles from that singular and interesting curiosity, the Giant's Causeway, is one of the most important as well as picturesque remains of the kind in Ireland. It is situated on an insulated rock, of one hundred feet in perpendicular height, which is separated from the mainland by a precipitous chasm of about twenty feet wide. The only way by which it can be entered is by a narrow wall, one of the supporters of the ancient drawbridge. The Rev. Mr. Hamilton, speaking of the isolated, abrupt rock on which the castle stands, and which projects into the sea, says: "It seems as if it were split off from the terra firma. Over the intermediate chasm lies the only approach to the castle, along a narrow wall, which has been built somewhat like a bridge, from the rock to the adjoining land; and this circumstance must have rendered it almost impregnable before the invention of artillery. It appears, however, that there was originally another narrow wall which ran across the chasm parallel to the former, and that, by laying boards over these, an easy passage might occasionally be made for the benefit of the garrison." This peculiarity in the position of the castle is thus graphically described by the Rev. C. Otway, in his "Sketches in Ireland":—

"Reader, surely you can not be at a loss for a drawing or print of Dunluce castle. Take it now in hand, and observe with me the narrow wall that connects the ruined fortress with the mainland: see how this wall is perforated, and, without any support from beneath, how it hangs there, braving time and tempest, and still needing no arch, simply by the strength of its own cemented material. The art of man could not make such another self-supported thing. It is about eighteen inches broad, just the path of a man; don't be afraid to cross it; rest assured it won't tumble with you: it has borne many a better man, so come on!"

The walls of the castle are built of columnar basalt, many joints of which are placed in such a manner as to show their polygonal sections. The reader may recollect that the Giant's Causeway is composed of polygonal or many-sided basaltic columns, vast masses of which are still lying on the coast, as if they had been torn up and strewed around by some convulsion: so that at the early period at which the castle was built, it would appear, so to speak, as if the architect had availed himself of the ruins of nature to aid him in his art. The base of the rock on which the ruin stands has been formed into caves by the action of the waves, some of which communicate with the castle.

There is no record of when Dunluce castle was built. The same may be stated of many of the other ruins which lie along the extensive line of coast of the county of Antrim. It would appear, however, to have been, at an early period, the principal stronghold of a powerful family termed the M'Quillans, or, as the Irish writers term them, the Macuidhlins. The M'Donnells, from Scotland, on one of their predatory excursions in the north of Ireland, entered into a league with the M'Quillans, from which event an intermarriage sprung. Afterward, either by force or fraud, for the story is by no means clear, the M'Donnells dispossessed the M'Quillans, and secured Dunluce to themselves. From this the chief of the M'Donnells, called by the English Surly Boy (in Irish *Somhairle Buidhe*, or Yellow Charley), according to Camden, was driven by Sir John Perrot, lord deputy of Ireland in Queen Elizabeth's time, who secured the castle for the English. But next year Surly Boy contrived to regain possession; and on his coming to Dublin, and swearing allegiance to the crown of England, Elizabeth granted him Dunluce castle, and a large district of country, to be held of the crown, on condition that neither he nor his men, nor his descendants, should serve any foreign power without leave; that they should restrain their people from ravaging; furnish at their own expense twelve horsemen and forty footmen for forty days in time of war; and pay to the king of England a certain number of cattle and hawks annually. The head of the M'Donnells was subsequently created earl of Antrim; and Dunluce castle continued to be the principal residence of the Antrim family till it fell into ruin, when they removed to Glenarm, their present residence.

"It was," says the Rev. C. Otway, "as fine a morning as ever fell from heaven when we landed at Dunluce—not a cloud in the sky, not a wave on the water: the brown basaltic rock, with the towers of the ancient fortress that capped and covered it—all its gray bastions and pointed gables—lay pictured on the incumbent mirror of the ocean; everything was reposing, everything was still, and nothing was heard but the splash of our oars and the song of Alick M'Mullen, our guide, to break the silence of the sea. We rowed round this peninsular fortress, and then entered the



Dunluce Castle.

fine cavern that so curiously perforates the rock and opens its dark arch to admit our boat. He must, indeed, have a mind cased up in all the commonplace of dull existence who would not, while within this cavern and under this fortress, enter into the associations connected with the scene, who could not hold communings with the 'genius loci.' Fancy, I know, called up for me the war boats and the foemen, who either issued from or took shelter in this sea-cave: I imagined, as the tide was growling amid the far recesses, that I heard the moanings of chained captives, and the huge rocks around must be bales of plunder landed and lodged here; and I took an interest, and supposed myself a sharer in the triumphs of the fortunate and the helplessness of the captive while suffering under the misery that bold bad men inflicted in troubled times. Landing in this cavern, we passed up through its landside entrance toward the ruin; the day had become exceedingly warm, and going from the coolness of the cave into the sultry atmosphere, we felt doubly the force of the sun's power: the sea-birds had retreated to their distant rocks; the goats were panting under the shaded ledges of the cliffs; the rooks and choughs, with open beaks and drooping wings, were scattered over the downs, from whose surface the air arose with a quivering, undulating motion. We were all glad to retire to where, under the shade of the projecting cliff, a clear cold spring offered its refreshing waters."

It is stated that, in the year 1639, on a stormy day, the part of the castle where the kitchen was situated gave way, and the cook, with eight other servants, who were busy preparing dinner, were precipitated into the sea.

A few of the ancient castles belonging to the old nobility, still continue to be inhabited, as Malahide, Lord Talbot's de Malahade, and Howth, the earl of Howth's, both in the county of Dublin; Shanes castle, the residence of Earl O'Neil; Portumna castle, on the Shannon, that of Lord Clanrickard; and Kilkenny castle, the seat of the marquis of Ormond.

CHAPTER L.

LEINSTER.

THIS is the largest province of Ireland, and contains the twelve counties of Louth, Meath, Dublin, Wicklow, Wexford, Carlow, Kilkenny, Kildare, Queen's county, King's county, Westmeath, and Longford, the whole forming a large tract of country on the east side of the island, and having Dublin at a central point on the coast.

The scenery of Leinster is much varied. The county most remarkable for picturesque beauty is that of Wicklow, a short way south of Dublin: the hills, glens, and valleys, are here rich in natural wood, and, bounded by an extensive prospect of the ocean, can hardly be exceeded in beauty. The principal points of attraction for tourists are Lough Bray, a woody ravine called the Dargle, and the vale of Avoca, which is one continuous piece of sylvan pleasure-ground. Wexford, still farther south, may also, to a considerable extent, be described as a picturesque and fertile county; and though the county of Meath is, for the most part, flat and tame, except along the banks of the Boyne and Blackwater, it can boast there of some spots of redeeming beauty, as an example of which, Beau Parc, the beautiful demesne of Gustavus Lambert, Esq., may well be mentioned; and in a large portion of the county the quantity of wood, and the rich hedgerows, give an almost English character to the landscape. Westmeath is remarkable for expansive lakes, and for the dry gravelly hills which give variety to its surface. The Queen's county, though a good deal disfigured by bog, yet boasts, at Abbelex and Dunmore, of a great stretch of magnificent oak wood. The remaining part of Leinster can not be considered interesting or peculiar in its general features. The King's county contains the greatest portion of the flat flow-bog, on the eastern side of the Shannon; toward Roscrea, where the Slieve Bloom mountains terminate, there is some fine scenery, especially about the ancient castle of Leap.

Leinster may be considered as much superior to the other provinces with respect to agriculture; and some parts of Carlow, Kildare, and Wexford, are cultivated in a manner approaching in skill to that of the agricultural districts of England and Scotland. In stock, implements, rotation of crops, and the industry with which manure is collected and composts manufactured, there is a great and increasing improvement. Farming societies, ploughing matches, and premiums for new and better breeds of cattle, have greatly tended to this increasing prosperity; and they only, who have witnessed what these districts were previous to the Union, can appreciate the amelioration which has since taken place.

In Kilkenny and its vicinity, the blanket trade was carried on to some extent, but latterly it has been in a very declining state. Near Dublin are some extensive paper manufactories, and in the county of Meath is a large flax-mill. Generally speaking, however, there are but few manufactures in Leinster. There is from its chief towns a considerable export of agricultural produce.

The counties of Wicklow and Wexford contain an industrious and thriving population; and because industrious, the people are able to pay, from soils not superior to those of other districts, rents which would be intolerable in other parts of Ireland. The Wicklow peasantry are reckoned the finest in the world, and are proverbial for their handsome features and fine Roman profiles, and still more so as being a respectful, quiet, and well-conducted people. The county of Wicklow is celebrated for its waterfalls, and that of Pola-Phuca may be mentioned as distinguished from others and as being one of the most picturesque objects in Ireland. Pola-Phuca, or, as it is sometimes written, *Poul-a-Phouka*, is formed by the descent of the waters of the river Liffey, a considerable stream, which, in leaping down several progressive ledges of rocks, brawls and foams till the precipitated waters form a vortex below of great depth, and supposed by the peasantry to be unfathomable. Pola-Phuca is understood to signify "Puck's" or the "Devil's Hole," an expressive term suggested by the whirlpool. It is not far from Rossborough, the seat of Lord Milton, on the left of the road leading from Blessington to Ballymore, and, though situated on the confines of the county of Wicklow, forms a strong attraction to the citizens of Dublin, and strangers visiting the metropolis, in their rural excursions. A bridge thrown over it higher up the river than is shown in our view, contrasts strongly with the masses of rock impending on both sides, and affords a very picturesque effect.

Another of these waterfalls is Powerscourt, which descends from a vast height; but the stream of water is inconsiderable, except during or immediately after wet weather. In dry weather, it has the appearance, at a short distance, of a fine silver thread gliding down the face of a steep rock.

The county of Meath is remarkably fertile; but being less subdivided, is therefore less populous than any other part of Ireland, considering the richness of its soil. The same prosperity as that in Wicklow and Wexford, though perhaps in a smaller degree, prevails in Kildare, Carlow, and the Queen's county. One of the chief causes of this prosperity is, that a large portion of the population receive money payments for their daily labor, and another, that the *cottier* and *con* or *corn acre* systems are here less resorted to.

The wages of Leinster are usually a shilling a-day in summer, and in winter from eightpence to tenpence, without diet. The average rent for arable land is from one to one pound and ten shillings, and for pasture land from two to three pounds per acre.

The general diet of the peasantry is potatoes, milk, stirabout, eggs, butter, bacon, and herrings. Their dwellings are confessedly superior to those of Munster or Connaught. The resident gentry are more numerous, and take a great interest in the well-being of their tenantry. Leinster, therefore, may altogether be pronounced a much improved part of the country.

As the woollen and silk manufactures are still carried on in Dublin and other parts of Leinster, a slight sketch of their history may not be out of place in the account of that province. So early as the reign of Henry III., Irish woollen manufactures were imported from Ireland to England, duty free; and so excellent was their quality, that, from 1327 to 1357, they were exported to Italy, at a time when the woollen fabrics of the latter country had attained a high degree of excellence. The prosperity of the trade is noticed in an act of Elizabeth: and so flourishing was it in the time of Sir William Temple, that he became apprehensive lest it should interfere with that of the English. In 1688, the woollen manufacture was established to a



Pola-Phuca Waterfall, Wicklow.

considerable extent in the liberties of Dublin. But this prosperity was soon interrupted by the English presenting a petition for the imposition of such heavy duties on the exportation of wool, as greatly injured the trade. It never, however, became extinct in the liberties, though it now extends only to the manufacture of coarse fabrics. In 1773, the Dublin society, anxious for its revival, procured an order that the army should be clothed with Irish cloth. This employment, however, became soon monopolized by one or two great houses, which had parliamentary interest: one of these failed in 1810, and the failure was followed by the bankruptcy of almost the entire woollen trade of Dublin; for the general credit was so much affected, that the banks refused to discount the bills of the manufacturers, and consequently the crash became general. The trade is now almost confined to the city of Dublin, where good hearth-rugs and carpeting are made; and favorable auguries are held forth of the factory of Mr. Willans, in particular, from the competition which he is able to stand against the cloth markets of the United Kingdom.

The silk trade was introduced by the French refugees, and about 1693, fully established by them in the liberties of Dublin. In 1774 an act was passed placing it under the direction of the Dublin society, for the extent of two miles and a half round the castle; and that society was empowered to make regulations for its management, which it accordingly did, and also opened a silk warehouse, and paid a premium of five per cent. on all sales made therein. But this warehouse was ruined by an act passed about the year 1786, prohibiting any of the funds of the Dublin society from being applied to support any house selling Irish goods either wholesale or retail. This act gave to the manufacture a check by which hundreds of people were thrown out of employment. According to a return made in 1809, there were still 3,760 hands engaged in it, who, after the passing of this cruel act, struggled to support the trade; but when the protecting duties were taken off in 1821, and steam communication opened with England, the Irish market was inundated with goods at a smaller price than that at which her native fabric could be produced, and thus the ruin of the trade was completed. The tabinet fabric of silk and worsted, for which Dublin has long been famous, is the only branch of the silk business which has not materially suffered from these discouragements. At present, silk tabareas of great beauty, and rich silk velvets, equal to those of France, are manufactured in Dublin.

The chief towns in Leinster are Dublin, Kilkenny, Drogheda, Wexford, Maryboro, Mullingar, and Trim.

Dublin, the principal town in Leinster, and the capital of Ireland, is situated at the margin of a beautiful bay, on a generally flat piece of country, through which flows the river Liffey, and is, therefore, agreeably placed both for commerce and the accommodation of a large population. In point of size, Dublin occupies a place between Edinburgh and London, and its appearance never fails to surprise and delight the stranger. In external aspect, it is essentially an English town, being built of brick in a neat and regular manner, but abounding in a class of elegant public structures of stone, which resemble the more substantial embellishments of Paris and other continental cities. The river, flowing from east to west, divides the city into two nearly equal portions, and is a striking feature in the general plan. The leading thoroughfares of the city are easily comprehended. First, from east to west, there is the double line of houses and quays bordering upon the river, the lower part of which forms a harbor, and is crowded with vessels. Crossing this line at right angles, is the great line formed by Sackville, Westmoreland, and Grafton streets, the first and second of which are connected by Carlisle bridge, the lowest in a range of eight or nine which span the river at various distances from each other. Parallel to the quays on the south side of the river, there is a shorter arterial line of great importance, formed by College Green, Dame street, Castle street, and Thomas street, being terminated to the east by the buildings of the university. Though the ancient part of the city occupies the south bank of the river, there is a portion of the mean and elegant on both sides; the streets and squares of the wealthy being here, contrary to the usual rule, in the northeast and southeast districts. All the great lines are formed by houses of lofty and elegant proportions, chiefly devoted to commerce; and perhaps no city can present a more splendid series of shops and warehouses. Sackville street, a hundred perches in length, and six in width, with a noble monumental pillar in the centre, and some of the finest public buildings in the world lending it their effect, must impress every one as something worthy of a great city. The spaciousness of several of the squares in the aristocratic districts, is equally impressive.

Merrion square is half, and St. Stephen's Green nearly a whole mile in circumference, the latter containing seventeen acres of pleasure-ground in the centre.

On first walking into the streets of Dublin, the stranger is apt to see, in the throng of carriages and foot-passengers, nothing more than what he expects to find in all large cities. He soon observes, however, that, besides the luxurious class who occupy the better kind of vehicles, and the busy well-dressed crowd who move along the foot-ways, there is a great multitude of mean and mendicant figures, such as are only to be found in a small proportion in other cities. This is the very first peculiar feature which the stranger detects in Dublin, and it is an unfortunate one. It is explained when we learn, that of the large population of Dublin—supposed to approach three hundred thousand—fully three fourths are beneath what is recognised in Britain as the middle rank. Thus the most respectable streets in Dublin, and the most elegant figures which appear in them, seem isolated in the midst of penury and meanness.

The public buildings of Dublin boast an elegance much above what might be expected from the general character of the city. In sailing up the river, the eye is first attracted by the customhouse, a large and splendid edifice in the well-known taste of the Adams, surmounted by a dome, and very happily situated upon the north quay. The postoffice in Sackville street, is in that graver form of the Grecian style which has more recently come into favor, extending above two hundred feet in front, with a noble portico surmounted by a pediment. The simultaneous starting of the mail-coaches at a certain hour every evening from the court of this building, is one of the sights of Dublin. Opposite to it is a pillar in honor of Nelson, surmounted by a figure of that hero. At the upper extremity of Sackville street is the lying-in hospital, a beautiful building, with which is closely connected the more celebrated Rotunda, together with an extensive plot of ornamental ground. The Four Courts, also a most superb structure, overlooks the river at a point considerably removed to the west, and completes the list of remarkable buildings in the northern division of the city. To the south of the river, the objects worthy of especial notice are more numerous. The buildings of the university (founded by Queen Elizabeth in 1592) occupy a conspicuous situation on the great transverse line of streets which has already been mentioned. Beneath an elegant Grecian front three hundred feet in length, an archway gives admission to a succession of spacious squares, chiefly composed of brick domestic buildings, and containing a theatre for examinations, a museum, a chapel, a refectory, a library, and other apartments necessary for the business of the institution. In the museum is preserved an ancient harp, generally represented as that of Brian Boromhe, a famous Irish king of the tenth century. There are usually about two thousand students in attendance at the university. Divided from this building only by the breadth of a street, is the bank of Ireland—formerly the place of assembly of the Irish houses of parliament. The deep colonnaded front of this building is one of the most beautiful pieces of architecture, not only in the British dominions, but in the world: it carries a charm like a fine picture. The hall where once the commons of Ireland assembled—where the eloquence of a Grattan, a Curran, and a Flood, was once heard—is now altered to suit the purposes of a telling-room; but the house of peers remains exactly as it was left by that assembly, being only occasionally used for meetings of the bank directorate. The latter is a small but handsome hall, adorned with tapestry representing transactions in the subjugation of Ireland by King William—the battle of the Boyne, the breaking of the boom, and so forth, as also a few appropriate inscriptions.

In Kildare street, at no great distance from the college and bank, the halls of the royal society of Dublin, present a powerful claim to the attention of strangers, in the great variety of curiosities, pictures, and models, with which they are filled. In a perambulation of the city, the castle is the next object worthy of notice. This ancient seat of the viceregal government, to which rumors of plots and insurrections have been so often brought by terror-struck spies or remorseful participators, is placed on slightly elevated ground, in the midst of the old or southern division of the city. It consists of two courts, containing certain public offices, and the apartments of state used by the lord lieutenant. In the lower court is the castle chapel, a beautifully-constructed and beautifully-furnished modern Gothic place of worship, the whole materials of which are of Irish production, and which cost above forty thousand pounds. The service performed here every Sunday forenoon, graced as it is by the finest vocal and instrumental music, while a rich "religious light" streams through stained windows, and is reflected from the gorgeous stalls of civil and ecclesiastical

dignitaries, is one of the most attractive things in Dublin. The state-apartments of the viceroy are in the taste of the middle of the last century, and are elegant, but not remarkable for grandeur. In one is a bust of Chesterfield, who was lord lieutenant in 1745. The most remarkable room is the ball-room, denominated St. Patrick's hall, which is spacious, and among other attractions has a ceiling ornamented with pictures, representing transactions in the history of Ireland.

In Ireland, old ecclesiastical structures are usually more curious for their antiquity than their beauty. Accordingly, the exterior of St. Patrick's and Christ church, the two cathedrals of Dublin, is apt to appear ungainly to an eye fresh from Westminster or Melrose. In the former building, nevertheless, the interior of the choir, in which service is usually performed, will impress every mind by its lofty proportions, its pompous monuments, and the dark stalls and niches, surmounted with the helmets and banners of the knights of the order of St. Patrick. In visiting this ancient church, the predominant thought is—SWIFT. We look for his dwelling as we approach, and for his tomb when we enter—such is the power which genius has of fixing the feelings of men for all time, upon every external thing connected with it! The deanery still exists in St. Kevin street, containing the portrait of Swift from which all the engraved likenesses have been derived. The streets immediately surrounding St. Patrick's cathedral, are the meanest and vilest in the city. The houses have a ruinous and forlorn look, and the pavements are crowded with a population of the most wretched order. These streets are filled with shops, but the trades to which they are devoted serve rather to betray the misery than to manifest the comfort of the people. Dealers in old clothes, pawnbrokers, spirit-dealers, and persons trading in offals, almost the only kinds of animal food indulged in by the lower orders of the people, abound.

At the western extremity of Dublin, on the north side of the river, is the celebrated public promenade denominated the Phoenix park, said to consist of about a thousand acres. Not only does this park greatly exceed those of London in extent, but it is questionable if even the Regent's park, after all the expense incurred in ornamenting it, will ever match this domain in beauty. The ground is of an undulating character, and is covered with groups of fine old timber and shrubbery, amid which are the domestic residences of the lord-lieutenant and his principal officers, besides some other public buildings, and a tall obelisk in honor of the duke of Wellington's victories. A zoological garden has lately been added to the other attractions of the park.

Dublin was formerly a busy literary mart, in consequence of the state of the copyright law, which allowed of cheap reprints of British books being here issued. After a long interval, the activity of its publishers have lately revived, and there are now several houses which afford considerable encouragement to native talent; among others, those of Mr. Tims and Mr. Milliken in Grafton street, and that of Messrs. W. Curry, jr., and Co., in Sackville street. The latter has had the merit of, for the first time establishing a respectable periodical work in Ireland, the "Dublin University Magazine," which has been carried on with increasing success for a number of years.

Dublin possesses a number of beneficiary institutions, conducted on a scale of great liberality; also several religious and educational societies, whose operations are extended over the whole kingdom. The trade carried on in the town refers chiefly to home consumption; and, excepting tabinets or poplins, it is not distinguished as the seat of any kind of manufacture. The foreign export from Dublin is extremely small. Its principal imports are—timber, from the Baltic; tallow, hemp, and tar, from Russia; wine and fruits, from France, Spain, and Portugal; tobacco, bark, and spices, from Holland; and sugar, from the West India islands.

The most important branch of its commerce is that carried on with England, chiefly in connexion with Liverpool, to whose market there are now large exports of native produce. Though the Liffey forms the harbor of the port, vessels of large burden, and steamboats have an opportunity of preferring the harbor at Kingston (formerly called Dunleary), at the mouth of the bay, on its southern side. This harbor, which is constructed on a magnificent scale, with the neat town adjacent, may at all times be readily reached by a railway from Dublin, which proves a great convenience to the inhabitants. At the opposite side of the bay from Kingston is Howth, whose celebrated "hill" forms a distinguishing landmark.

The number of light private vehicles in Dublin is one of its most remarkable distinctive features. These are generally of the kind called cars, drawn by one horse, and having a seat on each side, admitting of two or more persons sitting with their faces outward. To keep a car is one of the highest aims of the ambition of a Dublin tradesman. "Previous to the Union," says an intelligent writer who has been consulted with advantage, "Dublin was the constant residence of two hundred and seventy-one temporal and spiritual peers, and three hundred members of the house of commons. At present about half a dozen peers, and fifteen or twenty members of the house of commons, have a settled dwelling within its precincts. Other persons of this exalted class of society, whom business or amusement may draw to the capital occasionally, take up their residence at the hotels, which are numerous in the city. The resident gentry of Dublin now amount to about two thousand families, including clergymen and physicians, besides nearly an equal number of lawyers and attorneys, who occasionally reside there. The families engaged in trade and commerce are calculated at about five thousand, and the whole may yield a population of sixty or seventy thousand in the higher and middle ranks of society. The change which has taken place, though injurious to commercial prosperity, has perhaps in an equal proportion proved beneficial to public morals; the general character of the inhabitants, which was once gay and dissipated, has now become more serious and religious, and those sums formerly lavished on expensive pleasures, are now happily converted to purposes of a more exalted nature. Formerly there were seven theatres well supported; at present the only one which remains is frequently thinly attended. Club-houses and gaming-tables are nearly deserted; and even among the lower classes, vice of every kind has visibly diminished." In 1831 the population of Dublin was two hundred and four thousand one hundred and fifty-five.

Kilkenny, the capital of the county of the same name, situated on the river Nore, was formerly a town of great consequence, as its ancient castle, the ruins of its embattled walls, and churches, testify. Till lately it carried on a considerable trade in the manufacture of woollen cloths and blankets; but these branches have in a great degree fallen off, and the business is now confined to the retail of necessaries for its inhabitants, and the sale of the agricultural produce of the district. The city contains several good streets, which are respectably inhabited, both by private families and tradesmen; but the suburbs are miserable. The most conspicuous ornament of the city is the fine baronial castle of the marquis of Ormond, full of historical associations, rising boldly over the Nore. The cathedral of St. Canice, built in 1202, is not excelled by any of the ancient ecclesiastical buildings in the kingdom, except St. Patrick's and Christ Church in Dublin. The town possesses a number of respectable schools, and various asylums and other beneficiary institutions. Near the town there is a marble quarry of considerable local importance. Population in 1831, twenty-three thousand seven hundred and forty-one.

Drogheda, in the county of Louth, and situated on the Boyne, in the line of road from Dublin to Belfast, is a town of respectable appearance, and the seat of an industrious population. From the time the English settled in Ireland, this town was called Tredagh, and considered of such importance, that parliaments were formerly held in it. In 1649, it was stormed by Cromwell, and the inhabitants put to the sword, except a few who were transported to America. Five steamers ply regularly between Drogheda and Liverpool or Glasgow, carrying out corn, cattle, sheep, pigs, and fowl, and bringing back cotton cloth, timber, leather, tobacco, salt, and iron. Drogheda contains three Episcopal churches—St. Peter's, St. Mary's, and St. Mark's, which is a chapel of ease to St. Peter's; four Roman catholic chapels, two convents, and a friary. The chief civic buildings are a handsome tholsel, custom-house, mayoralty-house, jail, and linen-hall. The town does not bear a literary character: it has, however, four tolerably good bookseller's shops and a reading-room: there is also a mechanics' society in Drogheda. Its principal manufactories are a flax-mill, two foundries, salt works, a distillery, three breweries, one of which, belonging to Mr. Cairns, is celebrated for the superior quality of its ale, which is in constant demand in the English and foreign markets. There are, besides, several large flour-mills, and a soap and candle manufactory. There is a salmon-fishery on the Boyne, close to the town; and cod, haddock, plaice, soles, and gurnet, are abundantly caught along the coast. The linen trade is still carried on in Drogheda, though it is at present in a very depressed condition. The time of its greatest pros-

perity was from 1814 to 1820, during which period four thousand pieces of linen were averaged to be the weekly product. There was also a temporary revival of the cotton trade in this town; but in the commercial panic of 1825-'6, many of the Drogheda weavers passed over to Manchester and Oldham, others went to France, and a large body emigrated to America, in consequence of which the cotton business ceased. The population in 1831 was seventeen thousand three hundred and sixty-six.

CHAPTER LI.

MUNSTER.

MUNSTER contains six counties, Clare, Cork, Kerry, Limerick, Tipperary, and Waterford, and may be considered as that part of Ireland in which the national character, and the national habits of all kinds, are maintained in their greatest purity. Some of the largest seats of population in the island, as the cities of Cork, Waterford, and Limerick, are situated in Munster. The province contains many tracts of beautiful scenery, and one in particular, which is allowed to be unequalled in the kingdom—the celebrated lake district at Killarney.

The lakes of Killarney are situated in the bosom of the mountainous county of Kerry, and are annually visited by travellers from all parts of the island, as well as from neighboring countries. They are three in number, of unequal size, and considerably varied with respect to surrounding scenery, though that may be described as generally of a mountainous character. Lough Lane, or the Lower lake, by far the largest of the three, is skirted on one side by the level and well-cultivated country surrounding the pleasant village of Killarney; on the other side rise the Glens and Tomies mountains. In this lake there are a number of wooded islands, one of which contains the ruins of an abbey, and another the remains of an ancient castle. On the shore, toward the east, is the beautiful ruin of Muckross abbey. Divided from the Lower lake by the fine wooded promontory of Muckross, but accessible by two channels of level water, is the Middle lake, called also Turk lake, from the name of the mountain at whose foot it reposes. Over and above the islands which stud the surface, the beauty of these two sheets of water may be said to consist in the irregular promontories and slopes, generally wooded, by which they are surrounded, and above which the mountains tower in sterile grandeur. In many nooks of the scenery, elegant mansions look out upon the lakes; in others the mountain streams are seen descending in glittering cascades. The Upper lake, the third of the series, is three miles apart from the middle one, on a higher level, and totally embosomed amid the hills. A stream descending from the one to the other can be passed in a boat; and, at a particular place on the passage, it is common for tourists to have the bugle played, in order to enjoy the oft-repeating echoes which it awakes in the neighboring hills. The Upper lake, having the wooded heights of Derincunighy on one side, the round-headed Purple Mountains on the other, and, at the head, the bare many-colored ridge of Macgillicuddy's Reeks, while the surface is broken by a variety of sylvan islets, presents a landscape of enchanting loveliness. In connexion with the lakes, there is a narrow rugged vale, named Dunloe, which is usually taken in by a tourist in a survey of this fine scenery.

Among other beautiful places in Munster, we can only particularize Glengarriff, a ragged and most picturesque vale near the head of Bantry bay; the banks of the Blackwater, between Lismore and Youghal; the river Lee, below Cork, and the fine natural harbor (the cove of Cork) in which it terminates; and the lofty iron-bound coasts of Clare, amid which are some scenes of uncommon grandeur.

The soil in the southern parts of Limerick and Tipperary is perhaps not inferior in fertility to any portion of Europe. The Corkass lands of the former, and the Golden Vale of the latter, are celebrated for their extraordinary richness. These districts are chiefly appropriated to the feeding of black cattle. Wheat husbandry is cultivated throughout the limestone districts of Tipperary, Clare, and Limerick.

while dairy farming is followed in the mountain districts of Kerry and Waterford. The potato culture necessary to supply the wants of an over-dense population, is eagerly pursued throughout the whole province; and it is a deplorable fact, that a large portion of that population have no other food during the greater part of the year. The grass farms let in large divisions of from one hundred and fifty to four hundred acres, at from forty shillings to three pounds per acre. In the dairies of the county of Cork, the great butter county of Munster, it is no uncommon thing to have from one to two hundred cows in profit; the advantage of which is, that a cask is filled at once by butter all of the same churning. The sweet thick cream only is churned, and that every morning. The pastures of these dairy-farms are highly manured, and are never broken up for tillage, experience having taught the dairy farmers that the older the sward the richer is the milk. Some of these grass lands have not been ploughed for a hundred and fifty years.

Daily laborers are generally paid from eightpence to tenpence per day; or, if engaged by the year, from sixpence to eightpence. In the latter case it is supposed that the laborer has a house, and grass for a cow, at what is called a moderate rent, and which, in the estimation of the laborer, is equivalent to additional wages. The food of a great part of the Munster peasantry consists of potatoes; to this is usually added milk, and, if they live near the sea, haak or herrings. In Cork, but few of the laboring poor have cows, because milk can be had in abundance at a moderate price at the dairies. It is, however, very customary to have ewes, which not only supply a tolerable quantity of milk, but furnish clothing. The women spin and dye the fleeces, and have them woven into thick frieze, and fulled at the village fulling-mill: from this practice, the southern Munster men are remarkably well clothed. The cottages, or rather cabins, are, generally speaking, wretched; but it may be stated, that in the dwellings and furniture of the people there is a growing improvement. The character of the Munster peasantry may be considered as of mixed good and evil—the evil arising from a total want of restraint in early childhood, bad education, or, as frequently happens, none at all. Female education is peculiarly neglected; and it is deplorable to see marriages contracted when the wife has few capabilities for managing a family, and rendering her husband comfortable, or his house a happy home.

Generally speaking, the trade of Munster consists in the export of provisions and agricultural produce, as wheat, oats, and potatoes, to a large amount.

There is on the Shannon an active fishery for trout, herrings, &c., and abundance of excellent fish are sent into Limerick, Ennis, Kilrush, and to the county of Kerry. Along the coast of Cork there is a fishery for pilchards, herrings, and other kinds of fish, which are caught in great quantities, so that frequently the farmers manure the fields with sprats.

The leading towns of Munster are Cork, Limerick, and Waterford. The name of Cork is derived from the Irish word *corcah*, which signifies a marsh. This city, which ranks as the second in Ireland with respect to population and commercial importance, stands on the River Lee, which, through several channels, pours its waters into the harbor, whence the tide flows to some distance above the town. The streets are built along the river channels, which, being all quayed, give the city somewhat of a Venetian character: of late years, however, the narrower have been arched over, and only the main streams, in which the merchant vessels lie, left open.

The episcopal ecclesiastical buildings of Cork consist of seven parish churches, the cathedral of St. Fin Barry, St. Luke's chapel of Ease and Free church, the chapel of the Foundling hospital, and the church of St. Michael's at Blackrock: two other churches are in progress. There are four Roman catholic chapels, three new ones nearly completed, and four friaries. There are numerous dissenting chapels—two meetinghouses for Wesleyan methodists, one for the Primitive Wesleyans, one for anabaptists, two for presbyterians, one for the society of Friends, and two for two other small bodies of dissenters. A new Scotch church is in progress. The principal public buildings are, the bishop's palace, which stands on a height overlooking the town; a new jail, a little to the west of the city; the customhouse, large and handsome barracks, the city library, the reading-rooms, the infirmaries, the chamber of commerce, the steam-packet office, and a well-built and spacious courthouse, having in front a pediment supported on six Corinthian columns, and surmounted by an emblematic group of colossal figures. There is now in progress a new savings' bank, an extensive and ornamental building; also a new banking house of cut stone

for a branch bank of Ireland; a new and showy corn-market house; and an extensive workhouse for the Poor-Law Union, about three quarters of a mile from the city.

Cork boasts of many schools—the Blue-Coat hospital, for twenty-two sons of reduced protestants; the Green-Coat hospital, for twenty children of each sex, to be brought up protestants; the Cove street infant, Diocesan, Lancastrian, and Female Orphan schools; the diocesan schools for the united diocese of Cork and Ross, and a free school founded by Archdeacon Pomeroy.

Among the charitable institutions in this city are—Birtridge's charity, where are maintained seven old protestant soldiers; Skiddy's almshouse, where twelve aged women receive twenty-nine pounds yearly; Deane's schools, where forty poor children are clothed and taught gratis. There is, besides, a masonic female orphan asylum, and several almshouses. Indeed, in proportion to its size and wealth, the city of Cork bears a peculiarly high character for benevolence.

There are five societies here whose objects are almost entirely scientific: the Royal Cork institution, the Cuvierian, the Scientific and Literary societies, the Mechanics' institute, and the school and library in Cook street; one public subscription, and several circulating libraries; eighteen protestant societies, devoted to religious purposes; four benevolent societies, for the relief of the distressed; five philanthropic societies, two lunatic asylums, and a school for instructing the deaf and dumb poor in George's street.

The chief exports of Cork are grain, butter, cattle, and provision; its chief imports, wine, tea, sugar, and coals. From the parliamentary returns, it appears that, during the five years ending 1834, the average annual number of vessels entering the port of Cork, was, British 135, tonnage 26,438; and foreign 29, tonnage 3,384. Steam-vessels communicate between Cork and Dublin, Bristol and Liverpool; and steamboats ply daily between Cork and Cove. The population of Cork, according to the census of 1831, was one hundred and seven thousand and sixteen.

Limerick, the chief city of the west of Ireland, is situated on the Shannon, near the place where that noble river expands into an estuary. It consists of the Old and New Town, respectively situated on the north and south sides of the river, and connected by an elegant modern bridge. The new city contains many good streets, filled with handsome shops; but the old town is confined, dirty, decayed, and inhabited by a very miserable population. Limerick contains a handsome cathedral of some antiquity, situated in the old part of the city, six episcopal churches and a chapel of ease, meetinghouses belonging to the presbyterians, independents, and the society of friends, with five Roman catholic chapels, three friaries, and one nunnery. The principal public buildings are the exchange, the city courthouse, the city and county jail, the police barrack, the customhouse, the commercial buildings, the linen-hall, the market, and two banks. Though Limerick is not a particularly literary city, it has an excellent library and some very good booksellers' shops. The principal school at Limerick is the diocesan, but there are many private day and boarding schools. There are many charitable institutions, as the county hospital; the house of industry for the aged and infirm, widows, orphans, young females, and deserted children; the corporation almshouse; Dr. Hall's and Mrs. Villiers's almshouses.

With regard to the trade of Limerick, it has been observed, that though it has increased with the extension of the city, it has done so by no means in an adequate proportion, when its peculiar advantages are considered; the Shannon, which connects it with Clare, Kerry, Waterford, and Tipperary, affording it innumerable commercial facilities. The quays of Limerick are nevertheless a scene of considerable bustle, though chiefly frequented by vessels for the export of the native produce. Provisions to the amount of seventy-five thousand tons are here shipped annually. The population of Limerick in 1831 was estimated to be 66,555.

Waterford, the chief town of the county bearing its name, and a large seaport, is situated on the Suir, a few miles from its junction with the sea. Native produce, to the value of £2,000,000, is annually exported from Waterford; but the imports are comparatively unimportant. There is here a fine cathedral, founded by the Ostmen, and endowed with lands by King John, and several churches, meetinghouses for the presbyterians and the society of friends, a French church for the Huguenots, and several abbeys and friaries. The principal buildings are the bishop's palace, the exchange, and the city jail. Among its schools are the Latin free-school, and the Blue Boys' free-school, in which seventy-five are instructed and partly clothed gratis and the boys apprenticed to different trades. The population in 1831 was 28,820.

CHAPTER LII.

ULSTER.

THE most northerly of the provinces is ULSTER, containing the counties of Antrim, Armagh, Cavan, Donegal, Down, Fermanagh, Derry, Monaghan, and Tyrone. The province of Ulster is hilly. The scenery is in general picturesque, especially in the vicinity of its chief towns, Derry, Belfast, and Armagh. In the county of Antrim, the country from Glenarm to Bengore Head presents a succession of striking and romantic views. The most remarkable feature of this scenery is the peculiar conformation of the basaltic columns with which it abounds, and of which the arrangement is strikingly displayed in Fair Head and the *Giant's Causeway*. Bengore, one of the promontories of the causeway, lies about seven miles west of the little town of Ballycastle: though generally described as a single headland, it is composed of many small capes and bays, each bearing its own proper name, and of these capes the most perfect is *Pleaskin*. The summit of Pleaskin is covered with a thin grassy sod, which lies upon the rock, the surface of which is cracked and shivered. About ten or twelve feet from the top, the rock begins to assume a columnar character, and standing perpendicularly to the horizon, presents the appearance of a magnificent colonnade, supported on a foundation of rock nearly sixty feet in height. About eight miles from Pleaskin is *Fair Head*, the easternmost head of the causeway, which presents a huge mass of columnar stones, of coarse texture, but many of them more than two hundred feet in height. Some of these gigantic stones seem to have fallen from the top, and now present to the eye of the spectator the appearance of groups of artificial ruins. The part which may more properly be called the *Giant's Causeway* is a kind of quay, projecting from the base of a steep promontory some hundred feet into the sea: it is composed of the heads of pillars of basalt, which are placed in close contact with each other, forming a sort of polygonal pavement, somewhat like the appearance of a solid honeycomb. The pillars are jointed, and their articulation curiously exact, the convex termination of one joint always fitting with precision into a concave socket in the next. Within about two miles of the Giant's Causeway stands Dunluce castle, particularly described on a previous page.

The soil of Ulster varies much. In the counties of Armagh, Down, Antrim, Derry, and Monaghan, it passes from a deep rich fertile clay to a dry sandy or gravelly loam; while in Donegal, Tyrone, Fermanagh, and Cavan, a great proportion of it is cold, wet, and spongy. Tillage is, in general, in an improved state throughout this province; and, though the old Irish plough and the slide car are still occasionally used in the remoter parts, many of the modern implements of husbandry have been introduced, especially in Down and Londonderry. The English spade has nearly displaced the long or one-sided spade; the angular harrow and the thrashing-machine are much in use, and the Scotch plough has almost superseded the heavy Irish one. The corn crops most general are oats, bere, barley, and a small proportion of wheat. Barley is in Derry said to pay the summer's rent, and flax the winter's. Potatoes are largely planted by rich and poor, and gentlemen-farmers cultivate turnips and mangel-wurzel. Lime and peat are the most usual ingredients of the manure employed in the inland districts; while in the maritime countries, sea-sand, sea-weed of different sorts, and various kinds of shells pulverised, are used in addition. From the wetness of the soil, in some of the northern parts of Monaghan, the manure is usually carried to the fields in baskets, called *bardocks*, which are slung over asses' backs or the shoulders of the poor women. A small but hardy race of horses is reared in the island of Rathlin, or Raghery; and the old Irish sheep still prevails in and near Carey, in the county of Antrim. Pigs, goats, and donkeys, are numerous, the latter being much used in the counties of Cavan and Monaghan. A great deal of butter

is sent to the markets of Belfast, Antrim, and Derry, from the various dairies scattered through Ulster.

Whatever were the manufactures of Ireland before the time of James I., they were swept away in the long series of wars between government and the local chieftains in the days of the Tudors ; and the Scottish settlers in the north of Ireland, and those English whom Boyle, earl of Cork, brought into Munster, may be considered the introducers of nearly all the manufactures that now exist in Ireland. During the reigns of Charles I. and II. much attention was paid to them ; and the exertions of Lord Strafford, Sir William Temple, and the duke of Ormond, caused the establishment of the linen trade to be attributed successively to each. The duke of Ormond not only procured several acts for its encouragement, but sent Irishmen to Flanders to be instructed in the details of the flax manufacture ; and also established a linen factory both at Chapelziod, near Dublin, and at Garrick-on-Suir. In the reign of William III., the linen business rose to still greater importance, from the compact between the English and Irish merchants to discourage the woollen and promote the linen trade ; for which purpose they procured a statute to be passed, levying additional duty on Irish woollen goods, from a jealous fear that the prosperity of the Irish woollen trade was inconsistent with the welfare of that of England. Another impetus was given to the linen trade by the emigration of the French manufacturers, after the edict of Nantes, of whom a large number took refuge in Ireland ; and Mr. Louis Cromelin, a leading manufacturer, obtained a patent for improving and carrying it on, and his efforts were crowned with considerable success. In the 9th year of Queen Anne, a board of linen and hempen manufactures was established, and linen allowed to be exported, duty free. In the 8th of George I., a grant was given to build a linen-hall, and another to encourage the growth of flax and hemp. Previous to 1778, bleached linen was sold in the fairs, the manufacturer being the bleacher ; out when the manufacture extended, bleaching became a separate business. Considerable sums had been from time to time voted by parliament for its support ; and during the eighteenth century the trade continued to advance, until the check it received during the American war. On the re-establishment of peace it revived, and was at its greatest height from 1792 to 1796. Since this period it has considerably increased, and, though deprived of all artificial props, in the form of bounties, is now a flourishing department of industry. Belfast is the great centre to which the linens, not only of Ulster but also of the weaving districts in the west of Ireland, are sent for sale ; and hence large quantities are exported to foreign countries. The linen trade prospers at Castletwellan, Rathfriland, and Banbridge, in the county of Down, and also at Lurgan in the county of Armagh, where the weavers are at once weavers and manufacturers. At Dungannon, in the county of Tyrone, it has greatly declined, and is in Donegal chiefly confined to those who work for farmers or market sale.

The province of Ulster was also the seat of the first cotton manufactory introduced into Ireland. In 1777 the manufactures were in the lowest state of depression. To give them some stimulus, Mr. Joy conceived the plan of introducing cotton machinery from Scotland ; and a firm for this charitable purpose was formed, of Joy, M'Cabe, and M'Craken ; and a mill for spinning twist by water was erected by them at Belfast in 1784, at which time the manufactory may be said to have been established ; and so rapidly did it spread, that, in 1800, in a circuit of ten miles, comprehending Belfast and Lisburn, it gave employment to 27,000 individuals. But, from want of assistance at home to protect it, and the embargo laid on American goods, which inundated Ireland with English manufactures, the trade has declined, and the cotton manufactory is now almost altogether confined to the county of Antrim. Through the early part of the present century, it was carried on to a considerable extent in Drogheda, Collon, Strafford, Mountmellick, Limerick, and Bandon. Belfast was, however, the place where most skill and capital were expended ; as the trade increased there, it declined in other parts of the kingdom ; and, though large manufactories have formerly been established at Clonmel, Portland, and Limerick, it may for all practical purposes be considered as extinct in the other parts of Ireland.

No returns have been given since the year 1825, when the total number of pounds of cotton wool imported into Ireland was 4,065,930 ; and of cotton yarn imported thither from Great Britain in the same year, 41,953,156.

Wherever the linen trade is in operation, the people have constant employment, in consequence of being able to fall back upon their looms when agricultural work is

not in demand. They may be said, in common years, to enjoy a competency; that is, a sufficiency of food, raiment, and fuel. But in the western parts of Ulster, as, for example, the mountainous districts of Tyrone, Donegal, and Derry, where the linen manufacture does not exist to any extent, the laboring classes are not much better off than in the three other provinces. However, speaking of Ulster generally, it may be said the lower classes have more self-respect, more industry, more desire for advancement in life, than in other parts of Ireland. In fact, they are a better educated, and therefore a more improving people. As may be expected, their taste for comfort operates in the economy of their houses and farms; and, except in the mountainous districts above alluded to, where old habits still maintain their ground, the Ulster peasantry may be considered as a respectable class in society. The average rent of arable land is from £2 to £3 per acre, usually rising in the immediate neighborhood of towns to £5 or £6. The wages in Ulster vary from 6*d.* to 9*d.* a-day in winter, and in summer from 10*d.* to 1*s.* a-day without diet. The food of the peasantry is chiefly potatoes, oatmeal porridge, oaten bread, milk, and fish, which those who live near the sea vary with that species of sea-weed called the edible *alga*.

The salt-water fisheries of Ireland can not be said to have ever thriven. Under the former system of the Irish parliament, of given bounties, large sums were at different times voted for their encouragement; but by this there was no real strength given, and on the withdrawal of these bounties, things fell below their natural level, and the sea-fisheries became altogether inefficient for any purpose but that of supplying the localities surrounding the fisherman's dwelling. The fishery laws are now enforced with regard to both the sea and river fishing, and therefore there is reason to believe that this branch of industry is on the increase, and, if properly managed, will become one of the chief means of benefiting the island. The river fisheries, though less productive than under better management they might have been, yet form in several parts of Ulster a lucrative source of property. The lakes and rivers abound with trout, pike, perch, eels, and char, and on the Bann, the Foyle, and the Ballyshannon in Donegal, are established very successful salmon fisheries. Formerly, whales were not unfrequently, and still are, though but seldom, taken at the coast fisheries in this province. The salmon fisheries of the Foyle and the Bann were early celebrated. In Phillips's MS., they are stated to have been let from 1609 to 1612, at £666, 13*s.* 4*d.* a-year, for three years at £860, for eleven years at £1,060, and for twelve years, ending at Easter 1639, at £800. The right of fishing the river Foyle, so far as Lifford, is vested in the Irish society by the charter of Londonderry, granted by James I. in 1613. The increase of the quantity of fish taken since the introduction of stake-nets is very considerable. The salmon for exportation to London and to Liverpool are packed with ice in boxes, fifteen salmon, weighing together about ninety pounds, being put into each case. In a report made to Sir William Petty about 1682, it is stated that the fishing for salmon in the Bann river, and so in all the salmon fisheries, begins with the 1st of May and ends on the last of July. But by the present law, the season now begins the 1st of February and ends on the 1st of September, seven months being open and five close. The Bann fishery has of late years been much neglected; but, under the spirited and judicious management of Charles Atkinson, Esq., it has been much improved during the last year.

The chief towns in Ulster are Belfast, and Antrim, in the county of Antrim; Londonderry or Derry, and Coleraine, in the county of Londonderry; Donegal, in the county of the same name; Strabane, in Tyrone; Armagh, in Armagh; and Newry, Lisburn, and Downpatrick, in the counties of Antrim or Down. Without reference to counties, Belfast, Lisburn, Newry, Armagh, and some places of smaller note, may be said to form a cluster of towns chiefly devoted to the linen manufacture, and all occupied by a population who, for generations, have been noted for their industry and peaceful habits.

Belfast is esteemed the principal town and seaport in this province of Ireland. It is advantageously situated on the west side of the Lagan, where that river swells into an estuary called the bay of Belfast: distance from Dublin eighty-five miles. The ground on which the town stands is flat, while the beautiful and fertile environs on the western side of the vale are bounded by a picturesque range of mountains. Within the town, the opposite shore of the Lagan is reached by a long stone bridge, which also forms the egress from Belfast toward Donaghadee. Although this portion of Ireland is inhabited chiefly by Scotch, or their descendants, Belfast, like Dublin, is essentially an English town in external aspect, being built of brick, and hav-

ing throughout a neat and regular appearance, with many handsome shops. The prosperity of Belfast is dated from the revolution of 1688, when religious and political tranquillity settled upon that part of Ireland. Belfast is in Ireland what Glasgow is to Scotland and Liverpool to England. In manufactures, it is now the great depôt of the linen business, and the seat of the cotton trade, having within itself all the various branches necessary for producing and finishing these fabrics, from the finest cambric to the coarsest canvass. There are in Belfast and its suburbs fifteen steam-power mills, for the spinning of linen yarns. Among these, the factory of Mulholland and company, employing eight hundred persons, spins seven hundred and twenty tons of flax annually, the yarn of which is worth eighty thousand pounds. The hand-spun yarn sold on commission in the linen-hall (a cluster of buildings devoted to the use of linen factors), produces about one hundred thousand pounds a year. The cotton trade is declining, several of the mills being employed in spinning flax; and there are now only six cotton-mills in the town. There are also extensive corn-mills, breweries, distilleries, and tan-yards, with manufactories of machinery, cordage, glass, iron, soap, candles, tobacco, &c., for home use and exportation. In commerce, its exports and imports are extensive; the amount of duties paid at the customhouse of late years averaging nearly four hundred thousand pounds. The number of vessels lately belonging to the port was two hundred and ninety-three, the aggregate burden of which was thirty-two thousand five hundred and sixty-five tons. Latterly, great improvements have been effected for the accommodation of the shipping, by deepening and contracting the harbor, and furnishing handsome and substantial quays, wharfs, and docks. The port usually exhibits a busy scene of industry, by the daily sailing and arrival of ships and steam-vessels. Ten steamers sail regularly—four to Glasgow, three to Liverpool, two to London, and one to Dublin. In the retail trade, the numerous branches are carried on in a spirited and tradesman-like manner; and the various markets for the sale of the rural produce, which is brought in large quantities to town, are well conducted; in a word, the whole system of trade and industry is on an efficient scale, and equals that of any town of similar size in England or Scotland. The prosperity of the town is likely to be augmented by a railway lately opened, which is designed to proceed to Armagh.

Belfast abounds in presbyterian and other dissenters. The episcopal places of worship are only two (some authorities say three) in number but there are ten presbyterian meetinghouses; there are also two meetinghouses of independents; the methodists four; the society of friends one; and the Roman catholics two. The town possesses some excellent charitable and humane institutions: the principal are a poor-house for the aged and infirm, a house of industry, a lunatic asylum, an institution for the blind and for deaf mutes. This institution is on the same plan as that of Liverpool. The blind are employed in weaving and basket-making, and lately, by the introduction of raised letters, they have been instructed in reading. In 1824, there were in the town and parish sixty-three schools of all kinds, at which two thousand one hundred and fifty-two males and one thousand six hundred and sixty-six females were educated, exclusive of the royal academical institution, which in 1825 contained four hundred and sixty-two boys in its various classes. This institution originated in 1807, in a voluntary subscription of the inhabitants, by whom a fund was raised of above twenty-five thousand pounds, to which the late marquis of Hastings added five thousand pounds for its erection and the endowment of its teachers and professors. It consists of two departments, one elementary, the other for the higher branches of science and literature. This establishment is directed by a president, four vice-presidents, twenty managers, and eight visitors, chosen by the proprietary. The chairs in the collegiate department are eight, embracing divinity, moral and natural philosophy, logic, mathematics, Greek, Latin, Hebrew, and a lectureship on Irish. The object of this academy was to give cheap home education to those who had heretofore frequented the Scottish colleges. The synod of Ulster receives the general certificates of this institution as a qualification for ordination, and it may be now considered the great seminary for the presbyterian church in Ireland. The Belfast academy had been founded some time previously by private subscription.

Of literary societies, Belfast possesses the society for promoting knowledge, founded 1788; the literary society for improvement in literature, science, and antiquities, founded 1821. The town has lately received the valuable addition of a bo-

tanic garden, on a large scale, and laid out in an exceedingly tasteful manner. It was established and is wholly supported by the inhabitants of Belfast, and affords a pleasing proof of their spirit and liberality. The population in 1831 was fifty-three thousand two hundred and eighty-seven, but this number is now considerably increased.

Londonderry ranks next to Belfast. Besides being a seaport of considerable importance, it is the seat of a bishop's see. It is situated on the west bank of the Foyle, a few miles above the point where that river spreads into the harbor of Loch Foyle, and is distant one hundred and forty-six miles from Dublin. The original town, built by Sir Henry Dowera about 1603-'04, was burnt by Sir Cahir O'Dogherty in 1608; and the present city may be considered as deriving its origin from the London plantation, which was the immediate result of that catastrophe. The walls of Derry are described by Pynnar as "excellently made, and neatly wrought; the circuit thereof about two hundred and eighty-four perches, and in every place the wall being twenty-four feet high and six in thickness;" and, after a lapse of more than two centuries, these fortifications retain their original form and character. The northwest bastion was demolished in 1824, to make room for a market; and in 1826 the central western bastion was modified for the reception of Walker's testimonial; but the guns used during the celebrated siege are still preserved in their original places. The total number of cannon remaining in the city and suburbs is about fifty; and in the courthouse yard stands Roaring Meg, so called from the loudness of her report during the siege. This cannon is four feet six inches round at the thickest part, and eleven feet long, and is thus inscribed—"FISHMONGERS, LONDON, 1642."

The chief of the ecclesiastical buildings is the cathedral. For nearly twenty years after its plantation, Derry was without a proper place of worship, part of the ruined church of St. Augustine being employed for that purpose. At length a royal commission of inquiry was appointed, which, in 1628, reported that the corporation of London had begun to build a fair church in Derry, and in 1633 its erection was completed. This event is recorded in a tablet, which was originally placed over the door of the porch of the old cathedral, but is now over that of the belfrey, bearing the following couplet:—

"If stones could speak, then London's praise should sound,
Who built this church and city from the ground.—A. D. 1633."

The other principal places of worship are, a chapel of ease, a free church, two presbyterian meetinghouses, a Wesleyan chapel, a primitive Wesleyan methodist chapel, also reformed presbyterian, seceding, and independent chapels, and a Roman catholic chapel, which can accommodate two thousand persons. The principal buildings in the city are the bishop's palace, the public library and news-room, the lunatic asylum, the jail, and the corporation hall. Of its various manufactories, the chief are two great distilleries, and two corn-mills, one worked by a steam-engine of eighteen the other by one of twenty horse-power. The public schools in Derry are, the diocesan, the parochial, the presbyterian, the meetinghouse, St. Columb's, the barracks, and the infant school; and besides these are many others, public and private. There is here a branch of the London Bible society, the Londonderry literary society, and one for promoting religious, moral, and historical knowledge. There are also the Londonderry farmers' society, and the mechanics' institution. The port carries on a considerable traffic, both with respect to imports of foreign and British produce, and exports. The estimated value of the exports of Irish produce is above one million sterling per annum. The population of Londonderry in 1831, was ten thousand one hundred and thirty.

The city of Armagh, situated in an inland part of the country, is of considerable local importance. It is placed in the midst of a rich and beautiful district, the face of which is singularly varied by detached hills, some of which are more than a thousand feet in height. This character of country stretches from Lough Neagh in the north to the northwestern part of the county of Meath, in the south, and is well watered by lakes and streams, and, generally speaking, richly furnished with wood. The city stands on a hill, which is crowned by the old cathedral, around which the town has gradually arisen. Within these few years, several handsome buildings have been erected, with cut stone fronts—the courthouse, the jail, the presbyterian church, Primate Stewart's free school, founded and liberally endowed by him, and well carried on; the national school, and the savings' bank. The cathedral has been re-edified within these five years, at an expense exceeding 30,000*l.*

in the pointed Gothic style, for the most part in very good taste ; the organ is a remarkably fine one, and the choir excellent. The roads, in all directions, are admirable ; and in the laying out of the new ones, they are carried round instead of over the hills. There is water-carriage from both Belfast and Newry by lake and canal, to within four miles of the city ; the streets have flagged footways, and are well lighted with gas. About forty years since, the population was only one thousand. It now amounts to thirteen thousand. The archbishop of Armagh, primate of all Ireland, resides close to the town, as do also a large number of clergymen attached to the cathedral, as well as many respectable gentry. Near Armagh stands the observatory, built and endowed by Primate Robinson, whose munificence greatly contributed to the advance of science and improvement of the whole diocese. This noble institution is at present conducted by the Rev. Dr. Robinson, professor of astronomy.

CHAPTER LIII.

CONNAUGHT.

CONNAUGHT, the smallest of the four provinces, contains but five counties, those of Leitrim, Roscommon, Mayo, Sligo, and Galway. There are in this province large tracts of mountainous and sterile land, especially in the western parts of the counties of Galway and Mayo. The peninsula formed by the western part of the first of these counties is named Connemara, and is famed for its scenery, which somewhat resembles that of Argyllshire. It may be described as a vast tract of mingled bog, lake, rocky moorland, and mountain, bounded and partially penetrated by deep inlets of the sea, resembling the fiords of Norway. The principal lake is Lough Corrib, which is twenty miles long, full of islands, and surrounded by an extensive rocky desert, bearing no small resemblance to those of Arabia. Between this lake and the western extremity of Connemara, there is a range of tall, swelling, green hills, called the Twelve Pins of Bunahola, and to the north of these is an estuary famed for its wild scenery, named the Killery, many miles in length, and connected with the Atlantic by a passage only thirty feet wide. Connemara contains a small, scattered, and primitive population, unusually full of superstitious and old feudal feelings. Besides Clifden, a modern fishing-village on the west coast, there is scarcely any such seat of population in the district. There are, however, a few homely inns for the accommodation of the numerous tourists who flock thither in summer.

From the high grounds near Westport, is obtained a view of Clew bay, a magnificent sheet of almost enclosed water, full of islands, and bounded by lofty mountains, among which the most conspicuous are Croagh Patrick and Nephin. The islands of Clare and Achill bound the scene toward the west. In some states of the weather, and particularly when a summer sun is calmly descending on Clare, the view of Clew bay is one of extraordinary beauty. The islands are said by the common people to be as numerous as the days in a year, but in reality are only about a hundred. Croagh Patrick is regarded with superstitious feelings by the peasantry as the spot where their tutelary saint was accustomed to preach.

Amid the great tracts of wild ground in Connaught, there are a few other spots of an unusually attractive character. The scenery round Lough Allen, out of which the Shannon flows, is extremely pretty, as is also that near Boyle, at the foot of the Curlew mountains. At Lough Gill, near Sligo, a lake bearing a strong resemblance to the upper lake of Killarney, and the little bay of Ardnaglass, into which falls the cataract of Ballysedare, are scenes of peculiar beauty. Much of the surface of Galway is flat, showing, for twenty miles together, a succession of narrow limestone rocks, like parapet walls of three feet high, placed in parallels to each other, at distances of from three to ten feet : the intermediate spaces, though apparently but a waste of rock and stone, supply the finest sheep pasture in the kingdom.

The great central limestone district of Ireland occupies the southern portion of this province, which, to the eye, forms an exception to the general character of limestone

countries, appearing so exceedingly barren, that, in passing over tracts of Galway and Mayo, the traveller almost doubts whether he is not journeying over a great cemetery covered with tombstones, rather than over places where the sheep could find pasture or the peasant plant potatoes. There are, however, some exceptions to this prevailing sterility, for nowhere are finer sheepwalks found than in some parts even of the southern counties of Connaught. The tillage of this province is principally confined to oats and potatoes, as best suited to the shallow mountain bog-soil, which so largely prevails in the western baronies. The extreme moisture of the climate is so inimical to the growth of wheat, that, except in a few parts of Galway, Connaught can not be said to grow its own bread corn. There is a great export of oats and potatoes from the ports of Galway, Westport, and Sligo. With regard to husbandry, though it certainly is improving, it is yet much inferior to that of the other provinces. The landholders pride themselves on the breed of long-woolled sheep, their great source of wealth; and the celebrated fair of Ballinasloe, where from eighty thousand to one hundred thousand are usually sold, year after year exhibits an improvement in this branch of rural economy. Horned cattle, and horses, especially hunters, are also bred extensively in Galway. What has been said of Munster applies in a still more aggravated degree to Connaught. The property of an absentee landlord is usually divided into portions ruinously small; and if the proprietors do not quickly interfere, deplorable consequences must result from the subdivision system. The grazing farms are let in large portions, which it is the policy of the farmer not to diminish. Rents vary from one pound to one pound ten shillings an acre, except in the vicinity of towns, where they rise to two and three pounds; and wages are from tenpence to one shilling a-day in summer, and from eightpence to tenpence in winter.

There have been many attempts to introduce the linen manufacture into Connaught, and markets for its sale were established in Sligo, Castlebar, Westport, and Galway; but though it thrives to an extent sufficient to supply the rural population, there is reason to believe that little if any linen is exported from the province. There is, from the ports above-mentioned, a pretty large export of oats, whiskey, and potatoes.

The peasantry in Connaught are as poor as poverty can be without amounting to destitution; and, except in the mountain districts, their situation is daily becoming worse—so much so, that poverty, in times of scarcity, which on an average occur about once in seven years, increases to destitution, and appeals to the richer members of the empire to save the laboring classes from actual starvation, become unavoidable. The food of those who are the best off is generally dry potatoes, with occasionally a herring or an egg. In Connaught, the indigent peasant is reduced to a state of greater poverty, by grasping at the temporary relief afforded by the system called by the Irish name of *gambeen* (exchange), of which the principle is to furnish provisions to the poor, allowing time for payment, but generally charging an exorbitant interest. This system has led to the most deplorable results.

There is a good salmon-fishery near the town of Galway, and one for cod, haak, and haddock, which, from the poverty of those engaged in it, which prevents them from providing sufficient tackling for their boats, is less productive than it might be. In some years the sun-fish, or basking-shark, are abundant off the shores of Galway, and much excellent oil is produced; but this fish is so capricious, that the fishery can not be looked to with any certainty. The salmon of Ballinahinch are regularly sealed up in tin cases by the gentleman who farms this fishery from Mr. Martin, the principal proprietor of the country. There is a very productive salmon-fishery below the thriving town of Ballina, on the river Moy, from which large quantities of salmon are sent to the London market.

Galway, reckoned the capital of the west, and in point of population the fifth town in the kingdom, is situated in a valley lying between the bay which bears its name and Lough Corrib. The town is of considerable antiquity, and consists of streets and lanes huddled together, without any regard to comfort or convenience. The whole partakes of the appearance of a Spanish town, the result probably of its early intercourse with Spain; and a small open space near the quay retains the name of *Spanish parade*. The principal ecclesiastical buildings are the parish church of St. Nicholas, founded in 1320, a presbyterian meetinghouse, and the Roman catholic chapel. The Franciscans, Augustines, and Dominicans, have monasteries here. The chief public buildings are, the county courthouse, a hand-

some cut-stone edifice, erected in 1815, with a portico of four Doric columns; and the Tholsel, built during the civil wars of 1641. The schools in Galway are mostly under the superintendence of the Roman catholic religious orders. There is also one on the foundation of Erasmus Smith, one belonging to the National Board, and about sixteen parish schools. Galway possesses a house of industry, an asylum for widows and orphans, a protestant poorhouse, and a Magdalen asylum, which is supported by two benevolent Roman catholic ladies.

The chief manufacture of Galway is flour. There are a bleach-mill and green on one of the islands, an extensive paper-mill, and several breweries and distilleries in the town. The exports consist principally of grain, kelp, marble, wool, and provisions; the imports of timber, wine, coal, salt, hemp, tallow, and iron. In 1835, the vessels entered inward numbered one hundred and thirty-five, of an aggregate burden of twelve thousand nine hundred and fifteen tons; while the vessels cleared outward amounted to one hundred and forty-five, with a tonnage of fifteen thousand five hundred and thirty-one. In 1840, a splendid dock was opened, from which great expectations are formed of the increase of trade. A steamer in this bay is highly necessary, for towing out vessels in adverse winds. In 1831, the population of Galway was thirty-three thousand one hundred and twenty.

Across the country in a northern direction, and also situated at the head of a bay bearing its name, stands *Sligo*, a town of a much smaller population than Galway, but more important as respects its commerce. It has carried on for several years a considerable trade, both export and import, and is still increasing, notwithstanding the bad state of its harbor. The exports are wholly limited to agricultural produce. The retail trade is extensive, articles of every description in demand being supplied to a large and populous district. The streets in the older part of the town are narrow, dirty, and ill-paved, and badly suited to the bustle of an export trade. But convenient markets have been erected, and the extension of the town by regularly-built wide streets, is expected to remedy the inconvenience and irregularity of the older parts. Some good public buildings embellish the prominent points in and about the town, and the river Garwogue, which bears the surplus waters of Lough Gill to the bay, and turns several large flour-mills in its course, is a fine feature in the scene. The suburbs are beautiful and picturesque. In 1831, the population was 15,152.

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SEARS' PICTORIAL DESCRIPTION
OF
GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND,

EMBELLISHED WITH SEVERAL HUNDRED HANDSOME ENGRAVINGS,
ILLUSTRATING THE NATURAL SCENERY, CURIOSITIES, ANTIQUITIES, DRUIDICAL AND
ROMAN REMAINS, MANSIONS, CATHEDRALS, ABBEYS, CHURCHES, COLLEGES, CASTLES,
AND OTHER GREAT WORKS OF ARCHITECTURE, ETC., ETC., WHICH ABOUND IN THOSE
CELEBRATED COUNTRIES.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

WE have only room for a few of the numerous friendly notices received from the whole American press, and can only select, from the mass which presents itself, the opinions of editors whose papers have the largest circulation. Various letters, from many of our most eminent men, who have travelled in the countries described, could have been procured, going to prove the entire accuracy of the Work, and the correctness of the Engravings. The following has been freely furnished to the Editor, for publication; and the writer is so well known, throughout the entire country, as one of the leading and most influential ministers of the gospel, in the city of New York, for the last twenty-five years, that the most implicit reliance may be placed upon his judgment, and the estimate formed of the value and utility of this volume:—

From the Rev. CHARLES G. SOMMERS, A. M., Pastor of the South Baptist Church, N. Y.

NEW YORK, November 4, 1846.

DEAR SIR: The pen of the historian, and the labors of the biographer, no less than the pencil of the artist, are but too often employed in flattering the ambitious sovereigns and statesmen of some favorite nation, or in portraying the geographical superiority, the wealth, or the martial glories, of one country, to the disparagement of all other lands. Such, I am happy to perceive, is neither the object nor the character of your admirable "PICTORIAL DESCRIPTION OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND." I have examined the volume before me with considerable care, and much pleasure, and have no hesitation in saying, that I think it will be hailed as a beautiful and enduring monument of useful and elegant literature, peculiarly adapted to the wants and spirit of the times.

Whether, according to the declaration of Torfæus, America was discovered by the Scandinavian North-men, or by the adventurous Genoese, is a problem of no great moment; but, that the Anglo-Saxon race, who achieved the independence of the United States, and their children, are all descendants of the men whose zeal for civil and religious liberty was kindled at the altar of British puritans, is an interesting fact, which neither political animosity nor commercial rivalry should have power to erase from the memory of either nation. Whatever, therefore, is calculated to increase our knowledge of the origin, progress, and present condition, of a people with whom we are identified by a common origin, language, laws, and religion, can not fail to promote those kindly feelings which it is both the duty and interest of Britain and America to cherish. What enlightened man does not contemplate with pleasure the land where a Milton, a Locke, a Newton, a Davy, and others, arose to pour floods of light where midnight darkness had brooded for centuries? What American does not rejoice to claim the most enlightened and powerful nation in Europe as his fatherland? Great Britain is emphatically the patron of religious and benevolent enterprise—the land where the memorials of bygone ages may be studied with advantage, and where, though we find some things to disapprove, we see much to admire. Containing, as your history does, a graphic narrative, and more than two hundred original engravings, descriptive of ancient as well as modern curiosities and scenes with which that country abounds, the volume must be welcomed as an attractive and acceptable offering to all who read the English language, in every quarter of the globe, but especially to the American community.

I deem it but just to add, that the skill with which you have condensed and arranged the most valuable materials of several voluminous writers upon this very prolific subject, as well as the superior style of presswork and decorative bookbinding in which the work has been got up, are equally creditable, and can not fail to secure extensive patronage.

With my best wishes for your success, I remain, respectfully, yours, &c.

Mr. ROBERT SEARS.

CHARLES G. SOMMERS.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

From the New York Saturday Emporium.

We are glad, among the numerous cheap publications of the day, to meet with one which, although cheap, is by no means to be classed with those ephemeral publications with which the country is fairly deluged; and we are glad to see that one man is devoting himself to the advancement of morality, by writing books of general utility, and which, while they interest, do not corrupt. Mr. Sears, in all his books, appeals to the judgment, and not to the passions of his readers, and ministers mental food while he at the same time amuses.

His last book, the "PICTORIAL DESCRIPTION OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND," is destined, we think, to have an immense run, and to be more popular, even, than his "Pictorial History of the American Revolution," of which no less than nineteen thousand copies have been sold, and which is rapidly finding its way into the different SCHOOL and other LIBRARIES throughout the United States. Here a new class of persons are interested. Every adopted citizen from the kingdom of Great Britain will feel anxious to procure a memorial of the land of his birth, to which he can fondly point his American offspring—while, at the same time, so intimately is the history of America woven with that of Great Britain, that no library will be complete without this Pictorial Description of Great Britain.

And the book is worthy of a place in every library. It is extremely attractive in its entire "getting-up." The binding, the paper, the embellishments, are all in excellent taste; and, although Mr. Sears simply and modestly styles his book a PICTORIAL DESCRIPTION, yet it is, in fact, a PICTORIAL HISTORY of the countries mentioned. The leading events and facts in regard to Great Britain, are depicted with great eloquence and fidelity.

We assure our readers that they will be highly gratified with the three hundred Engravings and six hundred pages of letter-press, together with the elegant appearance of this superb book, which is an ornament to any centre-table.

From the New York Sun.

MR. SEARS has just added a new leaf to his chaplet of fame, and has contributed to the cause of sound learning and of judicious moral reading, by publishing the "Pictorial Description of Great Britain and Ireland." It contains nearly three hundred Engravings of the places, buildings, and monuments, most famed in story—places which, by being identified into the early history of Great Britain, become part and parcel of American history, and which are as familiar as household words on this side of the Atlantic. These, and the principal events with which they are connected, are described in a chaste, glowing, and elegant style—presented upon superior paper, clear type, and in elegant and appropriate binding. The book is published and sold at an uncommonly low price, Mr. Sears aiming rather at large sales than at large profits.

From the True Sun.

This makes the *thirteenth* pictorial volume which Mr. Sears has prepared and published within the last five or six years. Few publishers have been more successful. Each one of his works has had a large circulation in every section of the Union; and we have no hesitation in saying, that the present publication is one of the most interesting volumes issued from the American press. It is just in time, too, for the approaching holidays; and we have no doubt many persons will be anxious to secure it as a Gift-Book. The Engravings alone are worth the price of the work. We believe there are about three hundred in the volume, and the most of them are page plates. We ask our readers to call at 128 Nassau street, and examine it; and if its perusal do not effectually banish from the mind all troublesome thoughts of ledger and per-centage, drive from their presence everything like *ennui*, and fill up every leisure hour with rational and most exquisite entertainment, we will lay aside every pretension to critical discernment, and confess to a peculiar and most unaccountable taste. We are pleased with the mechanical execution of the work—the binding, paper, and type, are excellent; and, from the hasty perusal we have been enabled to give it, we are abundantly assured that none who can possibly do so, will fail to secure it, or that, when once commenced, they will lay it down with regret.

From the New York Tribune.

This is a large octavo volume, of about six hundred pages, embellished with about three hundred wood Engravings, elegantly bound, and well printed, with paper and type of excellent quality. It gives a complete but condensed description of the parent-country; from a perusal of which, we should think it well adapted for general circulation. The character and design of the work are so well expressed in the title, as to need no further comment.

From the New York Christian Advocate and Journal.

This is a handsome octavo volume, well printed on good paper, elegantly bound, and richly ornamented with several hundred appropriate Engravings. The descriptions are as numerous and as full as the limits of the work would admit, and much more accurate than many of those which are given by tourists, who, travelling at railway speed, can only take a hasty glance at the more prominent objects that strike the view.

RECOMMENDATIONS.

From ANDREW M'MAKIN, Esq., *Editor and Proprietor of the Philadelphia Saturday Courier, with a circulation of nearly 60,000 weekly.*

The very comprehensive title of this work has left us little to do for this valuable companion and key to English history, save to record our admiration and wonder at the industry, taste, and enterprise, of the author and compiler—at once the Columbus and Napoleon of the pictorial world—who has thus added a *thirteenth* splendid volume to his remarkable series of Pictorial Works.

From the Philadelphia United States Gazette.

This is a large octavo volume, beautifully printed, and gorgeously bound, containing a description of various parts of Great Britain and Ireland, derived from the very best sources. The work describes the natural scenery; curiosities, modern and ancient; Druidical and Roman remains; cathedrals, abbeys, cottages, churches, &c.; and all these are beautifully, and, we believe, truthfully illustrated, by many hundred handsome engravings, from good artists. A work of this kind is an admirable addition to the reading materials of young persons. They give them proper ideas of places and monuments, continually referred to in books and newspapers, but about which very little conception is formed. Many of the customs of the country are described and illustrated, and almost everything that can instruct and amuse the tarry-at-home traveller, with regard to England, Scotland, Wales, and Ireland, may be found in this interesting and valuable volume. With all its claims to high regard, this volume is sold low.

From the Philadelphia Saturday Post.

The above is the full but not exaggerated title-page of Mr. Sears' interesting volume. It is the completest compend of all that relates to England and her sister isles that we have ever seen; and when we remember that Great Britain is the "father-land" of the vast majority of the American people, and that we are bound to her by the ties of a common language and a common literature, that, in spite of occasional little jealousies and heart-burnings, we must ever feel that we are bone of her bone, and flesh of her flesh, such a full description of all that is most remarkable and famous in her borders, can not fail to be perused by American readers with great interest and delight.

From the Philadelphia Episcopal Recorder.

We do not often meet with a book in which the arts of design have been more successfully rendered subservient to the purposes of useful knowledge. It is truly an entertaining work.

From Alexander's Messenger, Philadelphia.

We have just received a magnificent work, the title of which is "A NEW AND POPULAR PICTORIAL DESCRIPTION OF ENGLAND, SCOTLAND, IRELAND, WALES, AND THE BRITISH ISLANDS," embellished with several hundred handsome engravings—carefully compiled from the best and latest sources, by ROBERT SEARS. This book is decidedly one of the best publications of the present day, and deserves the patronage of every reader of general literature. It gives a capital description of the British isles, their scenery, antiquities, cities, and public edifices. The British kingdom is classic ground to an American, and every portion of it possesses an interest which can not fail to impart a charm to any descriptive work. We recommend it to the perusal of all who love to travel, in imagination, through foreign countries.

From the Philadelphia Christian Observer.

This is a beautiful volume, an octavo in size, of about six hundred pages, containing a repository of general information, on whatever is most interesting in the history and present condition of Great Britain. We can not, perhaps, convey to the reader in few words a more definite view of its contents, than by quoting the title-page entire. It is embellished with several hundred handsome engravings, illustrating the natural scenery, curiosities, antiquities, Druidical and Roman remains, mansions, cathedrals, abbeys, churches, colleges, castles, and other great works of architecture, &c., &c., in these celebrated countries. The engravings are admirably executed on wood, and are severally accompanied with graphic descriptions of the places and scenes which the embellishments portray to the eye. The work is well executed, and offers to the general reader a fund of various information that will commend it to popular favor.

From the Charter Oak, Hartford, Ct.

This is a volume of six hundred pages, got up in a beautiful style—in gilt pictorial muslin. The geological structure, natural curiosities, Druidical remains, &c., &c., together with scenes of picturesque beauty with which these countries abound, are illustrated by several hundred splendid engravings, accompanied with explanatory letter-press. The description of the city of London occupies a hundred pages, and is made familiar to the stranger by fifty engravings of its principal streets, parishes, buildings, &c., &c. We have no hesitation in saying it is by far the best work of its kind ever issued from the American press. It is destined, in our opinion, to have a wonderful sale.

